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ABSTRACT

This monograph contains nine papers that examine appropriate education for prison inmates and training and education for correctional staff. Discussions include an argument that social class stratification plays a role in prison education; the observation that higher education's role is vital for prisoner reintegration into society; and a plea to eliminate the threats to prison education, such as the elimination of Pell Grants for prisoners and lack of support among correctional employees. Also provided is an overview of the impetus that historical and legal factors have played in upgrading educational requirements for correction personnel. The following papers are included: "Education: Correction's Vital Link to the Real World" (J. Michael Quinlan); "Mass Education and the Legitimation of Prison Higher Education" (Raymond Jones); "The Role of Post-Secondary Education and Correction" (Helen Corrothers); "The Correctional Crisis and the Economics of Post-Secondary Correctional Education" (Jon M. Taylor); "The Bacone College/Oklahoma Department of Corrections On-Site Post-Secondary Educational Program" (Dave Norfolk); "The Correctional Practicum: Invitational Education in Participation, Self-Awareness and Professionalism" (F. Lamarr Crowe and John Zappala); "Public Safety and Justice Careers: A Virginia University's Program for Professionalism" (Paul Keve); "A Study of the Role of the Student-Teacher Relationship within Correctional Education" (Daniel W. Lawrence); and "Future Opportunities of Symbiosis in Relating Higher Education to Correctional In-Service Training" (P. Christopher Menton). Most papers include references. (GLR)

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# Corrections & Higher Education Monograph

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# *Corrections & Higher Education Monograph*

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This Publication was complied based on submissions from presentations at the National Conference on Corrections & Higher Education. The Conference was held in Columbus, Ohio on November 21-23, 1991.

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# FOREWORD

*Robert R. Blair and Wes Jones, Editors*

Two principal concerns govern the deliberations of academicians and correctional practitioners when they gather the role of higher education in corrections. One involves appropriate education for inmates; the other concerns training and education for correctional staff. The nine papers included in this monograph address issues relevant to the educational needs of both groups. The first four concern inmate education.

Raymond L. Jones and J. Michael Quinlan provide a context for discussing specific programs of higher education for inmates. Jones argues that processes in institutions of higher education that reproduce class stratification in our society have their counterparts in prison programs where "education appropriate for prisoners" is designed. These programs may not alter the social status of participants, but offer opportunities for personal growth. Quinlan views the role of higher education in corrections as vital for reintegrating inmates into society. However, current building programs tend to compromise prison programming; similarly, prison programming must be viewed within the context of community and in the establishment of Community Relations Boards. His charge to members of the profession is to learn more about corrections and to become involved in research that leads to meaningful change.

Helen G. Corrothers addresses the need for correctional educators and administrators to alert the public to the potential benefits incurred through the secondary education of institutionalized offenders. Ms. Corrothers feels that the education is necessary in order to fully reintegrate individuals in custody into society, development of values, reflecting those held by society-thus ensuring public safety. Among the threats to correctional education Ms. Corrothers mentions are, the eradication of Pell Grants for inmates, and the lack of support among correctional employees and officials. She feels that it is the challenge of the criminal justice system to prepare offenders for a "responsible and crime-free life upon release."

The papers of Jon M. Taylor and Dave Norfolk can be viewed within the context of the general arguments set forth by Jones and Quinlan. Taylor shares a participant's perspective of inmate education, and attests to its efficacy as both an avenue for personal growth and as a predictor for reducing recidivism. Norfolk outlines the essential components of a two-year general studies program, designed by Bacone College and the Oklahoma Department of Correction, for a correctional center. The program has enjoyed modest success.

A second set of papers address the general theme of higher education for correctional staff. Darrell L. Ross provides an excellent overview of the impetus that historical and legal factors have played in upgrading educational requirements for correction personnel. The analysis includes studies that document the value of an educated staff for supervising offenders.

Two models that attempt to implement the objectives outlined by Ross are suggested by Paul W. Keve and F. Lamarr Crowe and John Zappala. Keve outlines the effort of one university to implement a program designed to provide quality training and education for criminal justice agencies. The individuals responsible for the development of the program are cited, as are the particulars on funding the key stages in the establishment of a diverse program. Crowe and Zappala discuss the practicum established at a community college to acquaint students with the skills of the program, including the strengths of existing programs they emulate, the strategies used to develop support for the program the acquisition of competent staff, the organization of the classroom setting, and the acquirement of reactions from students involved in the program. Finally, P. Christopher Menton provides an overview of how one trainer attempts to incorporate basic principles from higher education into on-the-job training for correctional staff.

# EDUCATION: CORRECTION'S VITAL LINK TO THE REAL WORLD

by
J. Michael Quinlan

*Based on Remarks Presented at the National Conference on Corrections and Higher Education*
*November 21, 1991*

This topic - linkage between education and corrections - joins two of the most vexing subjects facing our society today. As a nation, we are struggling with the twin challenges of moving our citizenry into the information age while at the same time coping with crime and the scourge of drugs. And though at first these may seem to be unrelated issues, there are many linkages that members of the education and correctional communities need to consider, and to pursue. This article will explore the reality of prison programming, as well as two of these areas of mutual interest - direct inmate education and the broader task of educating the public and public policy-makers about corrections.

Our nation's tremendous education needs are manifest in public schools, institutions of higher learning, and in the growing realization that a major segment of our adult population has serious literacy deficits. We read almost daily about concerns over declining SAT scores in the public schools. We hear about the funding problems of public colleges and universities, and the intensive remedial work that some new college students mustbe provided in order to function at the post-secondary level. We hear figures suggesting that as many as 20 percent of the American population is functionally illiterate - in a day and age that requires increasing verbal and mathematical skills for the average citizen to function successfully.

In prisons, the situation is even worse. Low inmate literacy levels and the implications they have for employability in the free world job market mean that without the prospect of even a modest income obtained honestly, released inmates are far more likely to revert to crime. That is why, despite the understandable needs in the public educational sector, correctional education is in serious need of attention and support.

It would seem that the value of inmate educational programs would be widely understood and accepted. Yet support for prison programs across the board is becoming more difficult to obtain because there are tremendous conflicting public views on corrections. Regrettably, the public is rarely (if ever) shown an accurate view of today's correctional facilities in the U.S. The media loves to portray low security institutions as country club prisons, where prominent white collar criminals polish their tennis swing or maintain their golf skills. Who would want to support additional funding for this kind of waste and irresponsible use of public funds, if this were truly taking place?

At the same time, there is no better story for the media than riots or scandals that portray prisons as either the Black Hole of Calcutta or dens of corruption. If those stories are true and prisons are that poorly managed, no-one is likely to want to support them with additional tax dollars either.

Neither of these portrayals is correct. But in a way, these dichotomies in the media mirror the differential views that can be found in American society on prison issues, which also can make it hard to gain broad-based support for correctional programs. There are those who strongly advocate deinstitutionalization for all but the most hardened, violent offenders. Opposite this group, there is the lock-em-up-and-throw-away-the-key crowd - who want punitive, harsh prisons that supposedly will deter criminality and terrify inmates into not committing another crime. There are those who try to attain a workable middle ground between these two camps, realizing there are men and women in prison who could be just as well served by some form of intermediate punishment, as well as those who probably never should be released. Which group do prison administrators appeal to for support, and how vulnerable is that support to the winds of the popular culture?

True, there has been an impressive amount of support for corrections at every level of government in recent years, to cope with a burgeoning inmate population. However, there is an increasing concern regarding the dollar costs of corrections' expansion. There are many who fear that these prison-related costs will adversely impact important societal programs, including public education. Calls for more prison construction to cope with a growing inmate population are positioned against the need to fund basic services for the law-abiding citizens of our nation. It is hard to argue that schools, hospitals, roads, and other services should be curtailed to provide for the needs of convicted criminals. As an example of this tension, there recently was a move in the U.S. Congress to curtail the Pell Grant program that funds education programs for inmates. This measure was dropped in conference, but potential future amendments are still a possibility, and this action was a sign that obtaining support for inmate education and other programs is going to be more difficult as public funds in many other areas are being sharply curtailed.

Even now, prison construction and operating costs are taking an increasing portion of the budget at every level of Government, and the public wants to be sure they are getting their money's worth for this investment - that their funds are being used wisely on a day-to-day basis in prisons. But at another level, they also want prisoners released "better" in some way than when they went into prison. This raises questions about the expectations we have of prisons in the area of treatment and rehabilitation. What is it that we can realistically expect prison education and other programs to do?

First, the public should be aware that prisons are not equipped in some unique way to change inmates into law-abiding citizens. Prison is the option of last resort for courts confronted with offenders who are products of failed experiences with every other positive institution of society. By the time an inmate arrives in prison, the home, school, church, and other social agencies have all had an opportunity to intervene in this person's life - to no avail. It is totally unrealistic to think that stigmatizing such individuals, locking them away, and imposing prison programs (no matter how good they might be) on them, will in some unexplained way positively change an inmate. Prisons receive, by definition, that select group of offenders that poses a significant risk to the community and who have been poorly motivated to change in other less stringent settings and programs - a group defined by its very unwillingness or inability to change positively. As a result, it is unrealistic to expect the prison experience to produce successes at the same rate as community treatment programs.

Second, the public should know that rehabilitation is a product of three separate elements - the institutional experience itself, the community's involvement in the offender's life, and the offender's personal actions and choices.

Prisons do have the first-stage rehabilitative responsibility of providing inmates with access to basic program opportunities, such as literacy and vocational training, substance abuse treatment, meaningful work assignments and including jobs in prison industries, where inmates can learn a functional work ethic and job skills that may be applicable in the community. Staff, serving as role models for inmates, can do a great deal to show them how mainstream values can be applied in day-to-day life. In short, after fulfilling their public safety role, correctional facilities have an obligation to provide inmates with an opportunity to acquire the tools for self-improvement and law-abiding functioning upon release.

The community has a different but equally important responsibility - that of supporting offenders while they are incarcerated and accepting them back into society in a meaningful, non-stigmatizing way. Support during incarceration can take several forms, but first and foremost is the willingness of individual members of the community to volunteer their time and skills to institutions. This provier not only concrete program content to inmates, but also serving as a positive role model - modeling and validating the behaviors and values that staff are conveying in formal institutional programs. Another means of community support during incarceration is through volunteer-assisted programs like AA, Prison Fellowship, and others which provide auxiliary services to inmates. Yet another is through the willingness of family and friends to maintain contact with imprisoned offenders, assuring them that they are still part of the community, even though separated from it. Finally, while understandably skeptical of ex-offenders, society must be ready to give them a second chance by providing employment opportunities and assisting them with suitable housing. This support network is vital.

However, the most important area of responsibility falls on the inmate. For institutional programs to be

effective, and for community and volunteer support to take root, inmates must choose to better themselves and to remain crime-free upon release. Each inmate has the responsibility to take advantage of whatever programs are available within the institution. Inmates have the obligation to honor individual debts (court ordered fines, restitution, child support, alimony, student loans, etc.) and begin payment on these while incarcerated. They also must participate in maintaining family and community ties, through correspondence and visitation, and begin planning for their eventual release through participation in pre-release classes and other programs. Upon release, the offender must choose to not commit another crime, find meaningful employment, adhere to any supervision requirements they are obligated to follow, and in general choose to lead a productive life as a law-abiding citizen. In the final analysis, the offender bears the ultimate responsibility for success upon release.

Of course, the reality of prison life is that literacy problems and lack of employability are common denominators for many inmates. Across the nation, if you were to survey the educational background of convicted criminal offenders, you would find that well over 50 percent have not completed high school, and that a full 25 percent or more are functionally illiterate. It is unlikely that criminal offenders with this kind of background can obtain employment that will honestly support even a modest adult life-style. As jobs become even more specialized in the future, they will require more advanced education and specialized training that relies heavily on literacy skills.

There are those who argue that providing criminals with education only helps them commit more advanced crimes. There is, however, no empirical support for that proposition. Most inmates involved in prison educational programs cannot even fill out a job application or read a newspaper classified job advertisement. For many prisoners today, even a high school education would be a tremendous benefit. Literacy, short-term vocational training, and skill development needs of the inmate population are the prime focus of most prison educational programs.

Literacy is the Bureau of Prisons' highest priority and in fact has been a mandatory program system since 1982. Basically, the Bureau's program requires that inmates attain a specified educational level before they can be assigned to higher paying jobs in the institution. This facet of the Bureau's educational program was implemented in a progressive fashion, starting with the 6th grade level and moving gradually to 12th grade equivalency. As a result of this emphasis, literacy program completions are up 600 percent since the mandatory program started in the Bureau.

Mandatory literacy works well in the Bureau, and similar programs have been adopted in 17 states, which have either established mandatory literacy requirements or are in the process of doing so. But there are other successful prison education programs as well. Ohio's literacy units are a very successful program in a state correctional system. This pilot program, funded by a grant from the National Institute of Corrections, provided the impetus for innovative computer and tutor-based inmate educational programs.

College programs are among the oldest in prison education, and in an era when sentences are longer, inmates have the time to complete a GED, one or more vocational training programs, and then undertake college-level work. Higher education can give a person greater self-esteem, help build improved value systems, and develop personal responsibility. It is indisputable that AA and BA degrees can make ex-offenders more competitive and closer to the workforce mainstream. For those reasons, while the main emphasis is on other programs, Bureau institutions do offer 4 year college programs, relying on community and 4 year colleges in 23 states to provide courses for approximately 6,800 inmates annually. In addition, inmates can enroll in credit and non-credit self-study college courses through the extension divisions of various colleges, the Corporation for Public Broadcasting, and other education agencies.

As an example of the breadth of programming available, in 1990, Bureau inmates enrolled in over 16,800 individual post-secondary courses involving 682,426 instructional hours. In 1990, Bureau inmates received 126 associate degrees, 52 bachelor of arts or science degrees and two received master's degrees. Most AA degrees are occupationally-targeted, in areas like business education, food service, electronics, drafting and the building trades.

Surveys continue to show the positive post-release impact of prison education programs. The most recent such study, by Paul Wreford, (1990) studied inmates in Southern Michigan State Prison who participated in college programs for 7 years. Of the 900

graduates, Wreford found the recidivism rate significantly lower than a national and Michigan parolee sample.

Education programs are not the only area where support is needed. Employers prefer workers who already have the required skills, and in today's job market (which is already biased against the ex-offender in so many ways) prison vocational training programs can be the deciding factor in whether or not that individual is hired. For that reason, the Bureau provides a wide range of vocational training programs to its inmates. In addition to traditional job training activity, Federal Prison Industries provides extensive pre-industrial training to prepare inmates for employment in prison industrial jobs.

The value of prison employment and training programs has only recently been validated empirically. The Bureau of Prisons' Post Release Employment Project (PREP) study disclosed that inmates involved in Federal Prison Industries job assignments, vocational training, or both, had better institutional adjustments, were less likely to recidivate, more likely to be employed and earned slightly more after release from prison. As a result, the Bureau is increasing the number of one or two year vocational programs to further enhance the employability and community success of releasing inmates.

It is important to remember that corrections cannot carry out prison education programs alone. Cooperative relationships are vitally important, as the Bureau totally relies on community resources for post-secondary courses. It also relies heavily on volunteer and contract community resources for many of its other educational and vocational training programs.

But there also is a need to enlist the educational community at a more sophisticated level than in the past - a level of involvement far beyond teaching inmates. The academic community is respected, and can help the public understand corrections better and assist correctional administrators in developing improved programs.

This can be done first via a direct teaching role. Academia can make a concerted effort to learn more about the real world of corrections today, and teach students more accurately and completely about this important facet of our criminal justice system. This need is not only evident at the college level. Our society doesn't do a very good job of teaching our young people their responsibilities as citizens, or about the criminal justice system and the sanctions that await law-breakers. This is an area in which a great deal can be done.

Second, by helping correctional administrators develop innovative programs, the correctional process itself can be improved. More academics can and must be willing to roll up their sleeves and get involved in the day-to-day problems of correctional education and management to help correctional administrators do their jobs better.

Third, greater public understanding of both education and corrections is needed, in which research can be an effective means to that end. The academic world can help corrections by conducting relevant research and by publishing that research in a way the public and funding bodies for correctional agencies can relate to. Appropriately designed research projects also will provide useful information to correctional administrators as they seek to improve the programs they offer inmates.

But this public information gap cannot be placed at the feet of the academic world. There is no doubt that corrections as a profession and correctional practitioners as individuals need to do more to promote a heightened level of public understanding about prison issues in general and prison literacy and education specifically. We must convince the public and the other entities that they have a stake in the success of our programs and operations.

The Bureau of Prisons has begun to do this in a number of ways. Bureau administrators periodically hold community forums, meeting with community leaders, members of the judiciary, the media, and the public. Bureau locations have formed speakers bureaus to make more information available to the public about our work. Bureau staff visit in schools, speak to civic groups, and are active participants in the education of their communities.

One of the centerpieces of this outreach effort is the use of Community Relations Boards. These Boards, composed of members of the community near Bureau institutions, serve as a vehicle for establishing local community support for institutional operations, and for fostering good communications between the institution and the local community. Such programs give the Bureau an opportunity to convey its mission and to assure that Bureau activities are in concert with the community and the local law enforcement apparatus.

Another key method of communicating to the public about what prisons are really like - one that has major operational benefits as well - is through the use of volunteers in Bureau programs. There are more than 3,000 volunteers involved in Bureau programs nation-wide. Bureau education departments, in particular, have a goal of increasing the number of volunteers, and there has been considerable progress toward that goal. In November 1990, there were 421 volunteers in Bureau educational and recreational programs. Today, there are 691 - a 64 percent increase. For instance, volunteers from Mount Marty College at the Federal Prison Camp in Yankton, South Dakota; the University of Texas at the Federal Correctional Institution, Bastrop, Texas; and Linfield College at the Federal Correctional Institution in Sheridan, Oregon, play an integral part in those institutions' educational programming. Expansion of programs like this is a high priority.

Literacy and education are key elements in U.S. society today, and corrections must forge strong links to the academic world to carry out its mission. The Bureau of Prisons, and corrections as a profession, are trying to strengthen ties to the academic community, as recognizing that relationship can be a valuable asset. This will be an ever-important alliance, as we develop and carry out programs for inmates, educate the public, and gain support for important correctional education initiatives.

# MASS EDUCATION AND THE LEGITIMATION OF PRISON HIGHER EDUCATION

*by*
**Raymond L. Jones**

## INTRODUCTION

Although the current goals of corrections departments tend to prioritize public safety through the provision of care and custody of prisoners rather than through rehabilitation, reformation remains a powerful social legitimation of contemporary prisons. The prison, however, has never proven an effective vehicle for the reformation of offenders. Throughout its history, a majority of prisoners released from custody have ultimately committed fresh offenses and returned to prison. There is significant research suggesting that incarceration encourages rather than discourages criminal activity (Fyfe, 1991). In the face of this historic failure, which motivated Marx to refer to the prison as the "university of crime," America incarcerates more people (approximately one million at the time of this writing), at a higher rate per capita, and for longer periods of time than any other nation.

Higher education has for more than two decades legitimated itself as a vehicle for the reformation of criminal offenders in the prisons. Those of us involved in the education of prisoners must recognize that the meaning of our work is intimately related to the question of how it became possible to include prisoners in higher education without undermining the moral legitimacy of incarceration. Prison higher education is a special case in the expansion of higher education, which has been marked by the creation of varying institutional types that roughly mirror the social status and expectations of those who sought to be included. Accordingly, the value of educational credentials earned within the prison is largely dictated by the place of prisoners within the evolving structure of contexts through which American higher education has expanded. More specifically, prison education is an aspect of mass education and this fact has implications for our legitimation of our practice in the prisons.

## MASS EDUCATION

The pursuit of social mobility through the acquisition of the credentials that had become increasingly requisite to occupational success grew exponentially in the years following the Second World War. Higher education, in part, met this increasing demand with increases in the economy of scale among existing elite and democratic institutions. But this was not sufficient. Vast numbers absorbed into existing institutions, without some means of differentiating among participants, would have dramatically reduced the value of educational participation and proven destabilizing for a class system partly legitimized by variations in educational achievement. A new educational form mass education and a complementary institutional type the two-year community college would be the primary vehicles through which escalating demands for inclusion would be met. The more elite institutions would also develop specialized contexts marginal to and isolated from their principal mission, to capitalize on the economic rewards of mass education without undermining the status of their mainstream programs. Continuing education departments, differentiated within the internal structure of institutions by their entrepreneurial mission, are a haven of such contexts.

Mass education and the community college have been rationalized as mechanisms capable of furnishing universal access to the benefits of higher learning and responding to the changing vocational needs of society (Labaree, 1990). Mass education, legitimated as an education accessible to all, was truly that. But higher education does not advertise the implications of that accessibility and the structure it supports. Mass education, the new form that would permeate all others, is invisible education. Mass education, through a structure that accentuates the deficiencies of aspirants and denies the likelihood of change, reasserts the

invisibility of the lowest classes (Brint & Karabel, 1989, Ginsburg & Giles, 1984; Labaree, 1990).

Through the stucture of mass education, inequalities in wealth, power and status are perpetuated (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Ginsburg & Giles, 1984; Labaree, 1990). Open admissions policies, for example, affirm the lack of distinctions between participants and non-participants. Moreover, it is frequently argued that faculty at these institutions occupy the lowest realms of the "academic pecking order" and are presumed to possess inadequate qualifications and expertise for employment in democratic and elite institutions. Concepts such as "University Without Walls" and "Open University" (Robinson, 1977) bespeak the desire to decentralize learning in order to reach special populations (Hendricks, 1983). They often emphasize self-directed and "prior learning" at the expense of traditional instruction. It is these institutions of mass education, we argue, that account for the vast majority of higher education in America's prisons.

Mass education in its variety of forms has absorbed much of the explosive growth of higher education, giving rise to claims that excluded groups now enjoy equal access to the benefits of higher education. But this growth should not be confused with the extension of opportunity for social mobility or success. These new contexts, legitimated as a stepping stone to democratic institutions, serve primarily to divert "unsuitable" candidates for inclusion. They would largely "cool out" aspirants by allocating failure and teaching students to arrive at "realistic" expectations about their prospects for academic success. The community college is evolving into the new comprehensive high school (Labaree, 1990). It is a place where one may acquire the basic literacy and competencies once certified by high school graduation. At its absolute best, it tracks students into the lowest realms of a stratified occupational structure (Trimberger, 1973). At its worst, it warehouses otherwise idle populations while they learn to define themselves as less than able.

## PRISON HIGHER EDUCATION AS MASS EDUCATION

Higher education is a system of contexts that reproduce a stratified society by regulating the social value of participation. The social value of the teaching and learning that occur in the prison is delimited by the location of prison higher education within this system of contexts. Higher education's historical pattern of expansion through the creation of educational forms and contexts that roughly mirror social expectations about participants suggests that it became possible to educate prisoners precisely because some of those forms and contexts are no longer wholly in conflict with social expectations of what it means to be a prisoner. Prison higher education is an element of mass education. It is characterized by marginality within higher education, an absence of selectivity that re-affirms the like identities of participants and non-participants, and practices which suggest that higher education exercises no institutional authority in relation to participants.

*Marginality.* Prison higher education is marginal within higher education. Most programs are self-supporting and dependent on shrinking state and federal entitlement programs to meet program costs. Two-year programs leading to the associates degree are in the majority and account for a high percentage of participation rates. Through four-year and even graduate programs exist, virtually all higher education programs in American prisons are elements of the continuing education divisions of their parent institutions and should be regarded as marginal-within-a-marginal-enterprise.

The problems of meeting program costs in the face of uncertain funding, recruiting competent faculty, securing access to academic resources, and overcoming resistance to the education of prisoners preoccupy program directors. Few programs receive funding from their parent organizations. The programs lack access to the comprehensive libraries and other educational resources presumed elemental to higher learning in the wider society. Lack of awareness, geographical obstacles, or departmental disinterest and opposition hinder recruitment among faculty members and compels reliance on part-time instructors who are often inexperienced. All of these constitute additional evidence of marginality with higher education.

*Selectivity.* Virtually all programs possess "open admission" policies which exercise virtually no selectivity among prospective students who possess the minimum qualifications. The principal academic qualification for inclusion is possession of a high school or general equivalency diploma. No

program known to this writer bases inclusion on past academic performance. Although some programs may require entrance examinations or preparatory courses, these are not evidence of selectivity because they postpone rather than deny admission. Financial aid status is typically a requirement for participation, but does not function as a form of economic selectivity. The principal source of funding is federal Pell Grants, which are awarded on the basis of income, and almost all prisoners, as adults who have no income, qualify by virtue of incarceration.

*Invisibility*. All programs are "off campus" and, by definition, are characterized by low residentiality in relation to higher education. The context of learning permits no clearly defined boundaries between the "campus" and the social world which participants inhabit and therefore fails to suggest the institutional transfer of authority requisite to credible identity transformation. Invisibility is strongly suggested by limited student access to faculty members partially dictated by the circumstances of confinement. Yet it is further suggested by incidence of both low and high technology "distance education" programs, including correspondence courses and computer-based instruction, in which faculty-student contact hours are minimal or nonexistent.

Prison higher education may be evolving into a specialized context within mass education. A specialized context is one in which aims and practices are legitimized in relation to a specific category of persons. Prison higher education appears to be a specialized context because its practices are principally legitimated almost exclusively as a vehicle for the rehabilitation or reformation of criminal offenders. The literature calls attention to a multiplicity of objectives - among them increased employability (Homant, 1984), increased educational levels (Seashore, et al., 1976), the meeting of psycho-social needs such as self-esteem (Pendleton, 1988) - but each of these may be considered of secondary importance because they are presumed to be instrumental to achieving the rehabilitation of the offender. The literature is replete with statements, which suggest that the rehabilitation of offenders has priority among the objectives of higher learning in the prisons.

Further evidence regarding aims specific to a category of persons is expressed in that portion of the literature relating to the nature of program assessments and evaluations. A sampling of assessments and evaluations revealed some which had concluded that there existed no correlation between participation in higher learning programs and the rate at which offenders subsequently returned to prison (Blumstein and Cohen, 1974; Seashore, et al., 1976) and others which had concluded that a significant correlation did in fact exist (Chase and Dickover, 1983; Thorpe, Macdonald, and Bala, 1984; Duguid, 1981; Blackaburn, 1981). Though the findings were inconsistent, the principal measure of success employed in each study was not. In every case program efficacy was measured in relation to recidivism.

## IMPLICATION

Some may react to what has been presented here by noting that these facts appear self-evident and by asking, "So What?" Yet in the face of this self-evident reality, we ask instead why it is that prison higher education, in its language and literature, is virtually silent about something so fundamental to its character. Those who oppose prison higher education suggest that prisoners are receiving a privilege they do not deserve and argue that the inclusion of prisoners in higher education has the potential to undermine the moral legitimacy and the social meaning of punitive confinement. Such a view can only be based on the belief that higher education, in all its variety of forms, possesses a meaning and value at odds with the meaning of confinement.

Advocates of prison higher education, of course, legitimate it as a personal status reform movement. In essence, we have celebrated the education of prisoners as a remarkable individual and collective achievement, capable of redefining the personal status of prisoners (Corcoran, 1985). What we seldom acknowledge, however, is the possibility that the inclusion of prisoners in higher education is little more than the routine and wholly unremarkable consequence of the pattern of expansion in higher education. What we are silent about is the simple fact that prison higher education, far from an undeserved privileged, may be an "education appropriate to prisoners." Our silence, in short, fosters misperceptions about the value of prison higher education and may exacerbate opposition to the education of prisoners.

We should not pretend that we do not understand why the obvious is so seldom stated. To acknowledge that we offer an education appropriate to

prisoners, quite simply, is the de facto admission that prison higher education has limited potential to reform or alter the status of prisoners. The simple truth is that there is no evidence that suggests that prison classification, parole or commutation are significantly influenced by participation in these programs, that participants enjoy less deprivation of legal rights or a differential civil status than non-participants before or after release, that participants are exempted from statutes that prohibit offenders from entering various occupations, or that participants enjoy differential rights and entitlements in relation to any other institutional realm in the wider society.

Higher education has extended a hand into the prisons of America. That hand holds out the promise of renewing a relationship with the social world that confinement denies. To grasp that hand is to seek a reunion with the world beyond prison walls. Prisoners, like the members of other social categories, see high education as an opportunity for inclusion and a chance for social mobility. Like other social categories, they are increasingly cognizant of the difference between inclusion in an education of constant value and inclusion in a system that simply varies the meaning and value of participation as it embraces new aspirants for inclusion. Prison higher education's location within the objectified contexts of higher education and its development as a specialized practice, however, suggests that it possesses limited power to create an altered status among participants.

However, to the extent that it claims that power, higher education's presence in the prison should be characterized by some conflict and marginality. Within the prison, faculty and staff of prison education programs are often perceived as intruders and many report the necessity of circumnavigating the hostile attitudes of correctional staff. The needs of prison higher education seldom rank high on the priority lists of prison treatment staffs, whose own agendas seldom rank more than a distant second to those of security personnel. Significant conflict may arise when correctional personnel perceive that the representatives of higher education may not share their negative assumptions about prisoners or their view of the appropriate role of staff (Tiller, 1974). A 1988 study, for example, reports that even "correctional educators" employed by the prison system possess "overall negative attitudes toward inmates" (Dansie, 1988). A 1985 study revealed that correctional officers had substantially negative attitudes toward higher level academic education for prisoners (Siano's 1988).

Prison higher education, despite these limitations, is not without value. The essential struggle of those in confinement is to maintain the recognition of their own and other's essential dignity and humanity. Higher education has led many prisoners to regard themselves as changed. By affording opportunities to learn and grow in a milieu that degrades and defiles, to accomplish in an apparatus designed to affirm incompetence, to develop self-esteem while subjected to systemic practices of dehumanization and objectification, those who bring higher education into the lives of prisoners offer the possibility of transcendence. Just as importantly, prison higher education offers some hope for the future. Though the credits and degrees earned in confinement secure few rights and entitlements in the wider society, the social and economic necessity of obtaining them is certain. As these credentials are increasingly devalued, they are also increasingly requisite at even the lowest levels of the occupational hierarchy. To not possess them diminishes the possibility of a productive life, to not seek them is to accept permanent membership in the underclass, to deny access to their acquisition is to practice a subtle form of economic and social genocide. These fundamental facts must be the foundation both for our parctice within the prisons and the legitimations we construct for prison higher education.

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# *THE ROLE OF POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION AND CORRECTIONS*

*by*
**Helen G. Corrothers**

Those of you who are familiar with my American Correctional Association (ACA) efforts are aware that I have promoted enhanced partnerships between corrections and education in several areas. Specifically, I have emphasized the necessity for all of ACA's chapters and affiliates to engage in crime prevention activities by working with children at risk in the various communities and that as a part of this effort, they become involved with schools, e.g. adopt a class and otherwise work to save our children. I have promoted effort on behalf of prospective correctional employees. Correctional administrators were happy to see the increased numbers of colleges and universities begin to offer criminal justice and corrections degrees. However, when the new graduates became employed, administrators noted in many cases that their training did not match their job responsibilities. Consequently, upon assuming the office of ACA President, I revised the charge of the Professional Education Council. They were asked to determine the feasibility of developing a partnership with colleges and universities which allow the field of corrections to impact the curriculum to more appropriately meet the needs of correctional agencies.

So then, I encourage this Conference's participants to continue the diligent effort for effective partnerships between corrections and education relative to potential offenders or salvageable children, to increase the capabilities and professionalism of our potential and current employees as well as to providing education to those offenders who are in correctional custody. It is this latter group that will be my focus today.

Using the topic of the conference "The Role of Post-Secondary Education and Corrections," I will share the philosophy that continued focus in this area is in the best interest of the criminal justice system, corrections and this country. Looking at the question of whether we have an implicit mandate or justification to educate offenders, I will briefly explore the underlying theories that have influenced the purposes of the criminal justice system and corrections, stopping to look at educating offenders in light of the criminal justice system's role of punishment and protecting the public. I will share results of relevant research and note any compatibility with the established purposes of corrections. Finally noting the current crisis and challenges of convincing a sometimes unwilling public of the necessity to continue these programs, I will speak to a viable approach for amelioration of these difficulties.

## THE JUSTIFICATION FOR CORRECTIONAL EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

Since corrections is not an island but a part or component of the criminal justice system, let's look quickly at the underlying theories that have influenced the purposes of the criminal justice system and corrections. The system can be viewed as a mechanism for the dispensation of punishment. ( A good definition of punishment is provided by Charles W. Thomas and I quote, "punishment is any lawfully imposed pain, suffering, or loss of otherwise available rights confronted by an act or as a consequence of this or her culpable criminal action or inaction.")(1987) It's important to ask, why must we have this pain dispensing mechanism called the criminal justice system? Indeed, why inflict pain. The more prevalent view concerning the justification for punishment is three fold: retribution, crime prevention and rehabilitation. The objective of <u>retribution</u> to provide the punishment deserved as a result of looking back at the crime committed, its seriousness or harm done and the offender's culpability. <u>Crime Prevention</u> suggests that it is more reasonable to look forward in time versus backward since the major concern should be the future benefits of punishment, deterrence and incapacitation. <u>Rehabilitation</u>, the third justification for punishment (I call this the historical definition of the rehabilitation theory) differs markedly from the other two major theories. For example, all retributionists believe offenders would be punished in proportion to the seriousness of the offense or harm done and utilitarians

believe the degree of punishment should be just the amount necessary to deter criminality in the future. Both views share the premise that the offender is responsible for his conduct because he made the decision to commit the crime. With the traditional theory of rehabilitation, there is the belief that crime is somewhat a symptom of a disease consequently the focus of the necessary effort is not seen as punishment but treatment for however long as necessary. It is not believed that the offender has the ability to chose, thus he is relieved of the accompanying moral responsibility for the offense. (As a side issue, it's no wonder that the topic of rehabilitation is controversial because there are many different interpretations and definitions ascribed to the theory. Your speaker, for example, along with a number of other corrections practitioners consider (what I call), the traditional theory as being problematic. For example, the model of rehabilitation that I used rather successfully as a prison warden was built in the 1970's using accountability, responsibility, discipline and fairness as it's cornerstones.)

There are those that believe that these three theories underlying the purposes of criminal justice, including corrections, are incompatible. This speaker, based on personal experiences, believes that a multi-objective theory is workable. That it is not inconsistent to combine the three theories. I believe that offenders' punishment should be guided by offense seriousness and culpability of circumstances surrounding such behavior. Further, that crime prevention is a worthwhile goal achievable through punishment and risk-reducing or rehabilitative programs. The ultimate goal, then, of this multi-objective theory produces in my mind the purposes of the criminal justice system which is the protection of the public and the reduction of the incidence of crime in America.

While the official purposes and the ultimate goals are the same for each of the various components of the criminal justice system, one component may place greater emphasis on a particular purpose than other components. Also, there may be differences in the manner that they are pursued and achieved. For example, in corrections probation, supervised release and parole promote punishment, deterrence, public protection and rehabilitation through conditions of release. The courts achieve the purposes of punishment, deterrence, and incapacitation or the goal of public protection through the imposition of a sentence. If the sentence is a term of imprisonment, the loss of liberty (punishment) will prevent the commission of offenses for the period of the sentence (incapacitation) and hopefully deter both the offender and others from future crimes (special and general deterrence). The commitment to prison triggers the correctional institution's contribution to these same purposes (punishment, deterrence and incapacitation). Of course, when corrections assumes responsibility for offenders, the overriding concern or primary goal is that of protecting the public by achieving two objectives. The first objective is preventing escapes and holding in a safe and humane fashion the offenders until their lawful release. The second objective is to assist offenders in the successful reintegration into society, by providing what I call "risk reducing" programs. It is noted that the secondary objective of assisting offenders into successful reintegration into society has the ultimate aim of crime prevention. Obviously, both objectives of the Corrections Component serve to protect the public. Thus, corrections' goal is the same as the remaining components of the criminal justice system.

## IS EDUCATION COMPATIBLE WITH THE ESTABLISHED PURPOSES OF CORRECTIONS?

Educational programs fit into the secondary objective of corrections, assisting successful reintegration into society by increasing the motivation to lead a crime-free life. We are able to prove education programs' compatibility with the established goal or purposes of corrections by looking at relevant research.

We can talk positively about the effects of correctional post-secondary education from two perspectives: recidivism and cost.

All of the studies from the late 70's and 80's suggest a positive correlation between the college-educated and a low rate of recidivism.

*Among the studies, we find:*

In 1979, Blackburn showed only 37 percent recidivism among releases who attended college versus 58 percent among those who did not attend college.

In the 1980's, a study conducted at New Mexico State Prison showed a 15% recidivism rate for inmates who had completed one college course or more at the

prison's university extension program versus a 68% recidivism rate for the general population.

A second New Mexico study reported that recidivism for inmate students who completed 40 or more hours was less than one-fourth of the recidivism rate of the general population.

In 1976, the Ball State University extension program at the Indian Reformatory was started. In 1982, an institutional memo noted that of more than 200 inmates who earned their degrees, none had returned as inmates there.

In 1983, a study conducted at Folsom Prison in California, reported a zero percent rate of recidivism for those who had completed a baccalaureate degree. By comparison the rate of recidivism for the general population in the prison system was 55 percent within three years of their release from prison.

All of these programs demonstrate that if we give inmates the chance, if we educate them, they can reintegrate into society,as well as stay out of prison. And keeping inmates out of prison pays off financially so we save money when we spend money to educate inmates. It comes down to this. We can pay for educating inmates or we can pay for more and more prison beds. At the rate we're going now, at least 1,600 new prisoners and 700 individuals are detained in jail every week. Even if we are conservative, and cost out each bed at only $50,000 in capital construction costs, we need to spend $110 million every week or $5.72 billion every year just to keep up with the increase.

The Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority reported last year that Illinois spent nearly $2.4 billion on all criminal justice services.

School District 428 at the Illinois Department of Corrections spent one and one-eighth of that money, about $27 million. Ray Quick, Superintendent of the School District 428, feels that the money spent on education was well worth it. That it is apparent "if you compare what it costs to send a person back to prison. That even if we do not count the cost to victims of crime and the cost of welfare payments to parolees because they can't hold a job, it's still worth it.

The Superintendent lists the costs of: the second or third arrest, the jail time, the trial and conviction, the prison time, the lost taxes and the supervision of that felon once he or she is released again to parole. He states and I quote "from an economic slant, there's no doubt our education programs are cost effective. A teacher has to reach only one student a year to pay his or her salary." He goes on to say "my biggest fear is that we could see some reduction in our college level programs due to the budget constraints faced by the state. These inmates who buy into the system at the lower levels and progress to college courses are the ones least likely to come back. But only if we can get them that associate degree or four-year degree. That's where the recidivism rate can be reduced by 60 to 70 percent or more." He adds "the argument that we should not be spending money on educating inmates when the state school systems are in need of money just doesn't hold up. The money that we would need to operate the prison system and house the inmates that the education programs help to keep out of prison, would exceed savings gained by the cuts." When we see the effects of a post-secondary education in both recidivism and dollars and cents terms, not to mention in human terms, how can we not feel compelled to find monies to provide that education.

## THE CRISIS

However, we do have our difficulties in providing treatment or risk-reducing programs in general as well as in education both during the good times and especially during the present economic situation. Among the current challenges is the threatened loss of the Pell grants. For some years, the Pell grants have helped many inmates to stay out of prison and to reintegrate into society.

In 1991-92, Pell grants will go to more than 3.4 million students. Most of these students come from families with incomes below $35,000, although by law, the maximum grant can go as high as $3,100. Congress has never appropriated enough money to allow grants larger than the current $2,400. Under law, Pell grants can cover up to 60 percent of tuition costs. In 1991, 36,000 inmates received Pell grants. This number translates into $36 million, a small percentage of the nearly one billion dollars spent every year for Pell grants. But this number also means that at least five percent of our inmate population is reaching out for something better. The degree to which states rely on Pell grants varies widely. Some states use Pell grants exclusively, others supplement them. Still others rely on Pell grants very little.

Washington State, for example, depends very little on Pell. It spends $8.5 million of its own money on educating inmates in vocational and college level courses. Some states including Maryland and Ohio arrange for two and four year colleges to provide post-secondary courses but charge inmates for the tuition. In these cases, inmates themselves apply for and receive Pell grants. New Mexico follows a mixed model. Inmates can receive a free education at Santa Fe Community College but need to pay at other colleges or universities. For instance, at one prison operate by the Corrections Corporation of America, Brannell offers all post-secondary courses and requires inmate students to obtain Pell grants to pay for them. However they are relied upon as Pell grants have been one of the greatest boosts that we in correctional education have had to fulfill our mandate.

"The funds are not limitless" has been used as a rationale for denying the funds to inmates by the President of John Wood College. A Congressional staffer has said that the inmate is not seen as a "traditional student." Finally, a proposed amendment to the reauthorization of the Higher Education Act would eliminate inmate eligibility for Pell grants.

I'm advised that at last count, some 45 states had already sent data to Senator Pell, Chairman of the Subcommittee on Education, informing the Committee of the extent that Pell grants have helped to successfully reintegrate many inmates through the education process.

An Illinois inmate, Leroy Brooks, sent a very meaningful plea to the Congress asking their support to retain the Pell grants. He made the point that the grant is not welfare. He said and I quote "the Pell grant is an investment by the taxpayer and not a give-away. Prisoners coming from unemployed, illiterate and unproductive life styles are returning equipped to participate in the job market." He also said and I quote "income taxes paid from the ex-offender's first two years' wages repays the cost of the Pell grant awards..." And finally, obviously referring to the fact that prisoners are in any event eligible upon release, he notes that failure to provide them the use of the grant prior to release would serve to delay any positive result of the education. What I'm sure is implied here though not said, is that education has a better chance of increasing one's propensity for a changed life style if this process is begun early, that is to say, prior to release. (We could say without the distraction of liberty.)

When we look at our current crisis in education, we know what our approach must be. The point is illustrated by this story.

**THE PLAN**

In 1961, the National Education Association's journal published a study which was revealed in an article by William G. Perry, who was then Director of the Bureau of Study Counsel at Harvard. He reported on a 20-year experiment on teaching 1,500 Harvard and Radcliffe students how to read better. Year by year he said it is become apparent that what the students lack is not the mechanical skills but flexibility and purpose in the use of their skills. What they seem to do with almost any kind of reading, he said, is to open the book and read from one word to the next, having in advance abandoned all responsibility about the purpose of the reading to those who had made the assignment. Subsequent to this 20-year experiment, Dr. Perry concluded that students when burdened with detail, where purpose is deliberately vague, will in most cases not exert any effort to determine the purpose of the assignment. Sadly, he remarked that "after 12 years of reading homework assignments in school, students had settled into the habit of leaving the point of it all to someone else."

And now, in 1991, thirty years later, we can conclude that the public, including our policy makers and legislators are mired in detail and are "leaving the point of it all" to someone else. We are the appropriate "someone else." Who is better qualified?

If commitment is dwindling, and the purpose is not clear, it is up to us correctional educators and administrators to keep the "point of it all" in front of the public. The point of it all, I submit, is crime reduction and/or the protection of the public.

Obviously, the key to continued support for education in general in addition to the continuation specifically of the Pell grants is our most strenuous effort to pass along the information concerning the evidence that education is transforming inmates into responsible citizens. We must continue to talk about the reduction in the recidivism rates of inmates who have strengthened their skills, their knowledge and their approach to life and finally, we must emphasize the negative impact that will result from eliminating risk-reducing programs or eliminating Pell

grants or decreasing our funds for education in general.

We know that all of American education is in crisis right now. Americans are testing near the bottom of world standards for reading and math. The reason for this appalling situation is that for years, education has just not been a national priority. And similarly, according to researchers, when we investigate the various priorities of correctional administrators, we find that education is also not seen as a priority item.

There is a current nationwide emphasis on education. At the beginning of his term, President Bush held an historic summit in Charlottesville. His focus was education for everyone. He declared and I quote, "the time has come for the first time in the United States to establish clear national performance goals. Goals that will make us internationally competitive."

At that meeting, six national education goals were established. The fifth national goal specifically addresses our challenge. It reads and I quote "by the year 2000, every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skill necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibility of citizenship." It is our challenge to educate to the extent possible those offenders who are willing to make use of their available time during punishment to prepare for a responsible and crime-free life upon release.

On October 4, 1991, Governor Romer of Colorado spoke about this crisis and about what he was going to do in Colorado to redirect priorities and place education at the top of his list. He said that if we believe that education is fundamental to succeeding in life, then we must take responsibility for educating. We must say, as Governor Romer did, "It's just not good enough for us to say: This is where we are. We've tried everything we could. There's not much more we can do about it."

It is up to us to see the crisis or the constraints and obstacles as preventing our success or to see them as opportunities for our creative and innovative abilities. It's up to us to allow the difficulties we face to force us to develop new strategies and reformulate old ones leading us to our goals by a different route. As I said to ACA in 1987, "Corrections must help shape its own destiny or suffer the consequences." It is up to us to keep the problems and the solutions in front of the public. To convince the public that the inmate can be punished through the deprivation of his or her liberty and at the same time have them participate in programs to include education that may change their attitudes toward the acceptance of positive value systems. It is up to us to convince the public that educating those adults who have fallen through the cracks of society is in America's best interest. That it is about public safety.

The fact that educating inmates is not a simple task has been pointed out to us by researchers such as Rouch (1983) and Corcoran (1985) who note the need for considerable improvement in correctional education programs. They point to a lack of societal support, lack of collaboration between correctional and educational leaders, poor resources and inadequate planning as only a few of the many problems. They note that one glaring omission is the lack of post-secondary educational opportunities for the ever-increasing qualified inmate. They note that education is necessary to prepare future citizens to lead productive lives, that prison education should hold high priority in the rehabilitation of the incarcerated. Their investigation into the various priorities of prison officials have found education at the bottom of the list. These and other researchers have noted internal problems concerning the delivery of educational programs, such as the lack of support among the correctional officers as well as research studies that have found consistent problems concerning prison officials viewing educational roles as being contradictory to correctional goals. Obviously, our strategy to convince an unwilling public must also be directed to those correctional employees and officials who have not yet seen the tie between the objective of educating inmates and crime reduction. We must in many cases get back to the basic purposes of the criminal justice system and the purposes of corrections in our strategy. This is vital to our acquisition of support from corrections practitioners as well as from the general public.

When I reviewed the requested data reflecting the impact of education on offenders, some of which was used in this presentation today, I thought it startling and extremely important. My immediate thought was that the findings from the various research in this area have probably been one of our best kept secrets. Using this data should be the main focus of our marketing plan designed

specifically to obtain support for correctional post-secondary education. We will need to develop our plan as carefully as McDonald's or Purdue or any commercial business. The plan must focus on three questions: (1) what is our product and purpose; (2) who is our target audience and (3) what do we want our "buyers" to do?

To address briefly these questions:

(1) What is our purpose? Our purpose is to convince an unwilling public that educating inmates is one of the smartest moves they can make. To convince the public— in graphic pie-chart ways—that it costs them more tax dollars to keep inmates in prison, as well as keep bringing inmates back to prison. To convince legislators that inmate education is an investment in America. To convince correctional administrators and correctional officers, at all levels, that educating inmates is consistent with the goals of criminal justice and corrections and is the best security that we have.

(2) Who is our target audience? Our target audience is a public who is angry about crime and criminals, tired of extending taxpayers' dollars which don't appear to bring them their desired commodity of safety. A public who concentrates on their own problems—financial problems—in sending their own children to college. The public includes legislators, policy makers, foundations, private enterprise, correctional administrators and correctional staff at all levels.

(3) What do we want our "buyers" to do ? We want our buyers to change their attitudes about educating inmates based on the information provided by us that shows them unequivocally that the money spent on educating inmates is an investment in America's future as well as their own safety. We want them , as a result of their attitude change, to provide financial and emotional support. We want them to assist us in meeting the mandate that is implied by the mission of corrections to educate inmates in order to assist our efforts in stopping the destructive cycle of crime.

It is important to note that as a part of changing the public's attitude about educating inmates, we must proceed to plan and implement an aggressive strategy concerning research, conducting more research as well as aggressively publishing the results of research already completed. We need to tell of the now secret success stories of parolees who use their education to become productive citizens. We need to use television, large metropolitan newspapers and public forums, dedicated to focusing America's attention on the need for education and the potential benefits. We need to develop effective partnerships of correctional practitioners, educators, legislators, marketing people, media and other representatives of the public. Finally, we must believe that the job can be done.

## CLOSING

Extremely moving remarks reflecting purpose and value of education were found in a March 14, 1991, open letter to inmates. You have no doubt seen it, nevertheless, I would like to share it as I close.

# THE CORRECTIONAL CRISIS & THE ECONOMICS OF POST-SECONDARY CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION

by
Jon M. Taylor

For the past few decades Americans have expressed their growing dismay over what they perceive as the continual rising rate of crime. The public consternation, echoed or perhaps fueled by elected officials in their "war on crime" rhetoric, has resulted in many states rewriting their sentencing law, stiffening their probation guidelines and expanding their use of incarceration as their chief tool of deterrence. Subsequently, corrections in the nation has reached a state of infrastructural and fiscal crisis.

## THE CORRECTIONAL CRISIS

Barrett and Greene (1989) report that "every week, like clockwork, the total number of prison inmates in the United States grows by 1,000 people." Today, four million Americans are under some form of correctional supervision, with over 800,000 behind bars—an institutional growth rate in excess of 250 percent since 1980 (Zawitz et al., 1992). The future is even more grim; for Williams (1989) notes that the U.S. Sentencing Commission estimates that there will be doubling of the prison population over the next decade.

The cost of incarcerating ever increasing numbers of the population, at an average cost of $25,800 a year (Zedlewski, 1987), now consumes $20 billion annually (Dilulio, 1991), up from $13 billion only six years before (BJS data report, 1989, 1990). Even with these immense expenditures—projected to exceed $70 billion over the next few decades in construction alone (Ticer, 1989)—approximately 900 State and federal prisons on-line (Skelton, 1989) and 100 additional institutions under construction (Barrett and Greene, 1989) are operating at between seven and twenty-four percent above capacity (BJS Data Report, 1988, 1989). The overcrowding problem has manifested itself to the point that by 1991, 45 (90 percent) state correctional systems, whole or in part, were under some form of court order to reduce overcrowding and improve conditions (Correction Forum, 1992).

The funds for these massive and already delinquent building programs, in addition to current and future operating budgets, have to come from somewhere at the expense of someone else. The correctional systems of many states, Gleckman (1989) observes, are becoming their fastest growing budget item. The double-digit increase in correctional budgets are adversely affecting everyone, from our children's education to our own health care to our parents' retirement foundation. Benjamin Baer, Chairman of the U.S. Parole Commission, realistically focuses on the dilemma: "sooner or later you have to ask whether you are willing to let your kids have a mediocre education in order to send a few more people to prison" (Barrett and Greene, 1989).

## AFFIRMATION OF THE REHABILITATION ETHIC AS A SOLUTION

A 1988 American Bar Association report warns that answers to the growing criminal justice problem are not so simple as merely making more arrests and imposing longer prison sentences. The report stresses that immediate action needs to be taken "to rethink our strategies" for dealing with the criminal justice crisis afflicting our nation (Dash, 1988). Rehabilitation is now seen as the "key," Ticer (1989) reports, to reining in seemingly rampaging correctional budgets. As Quinney (1979) observed, "the correctional movement of this century has counted on the prison as serving as a center for rehabilitating offenders as well as confining them."

Americans, even with perceived rising crime rates, have supported this correctional philosophy of rehabilitational confinement ethic as the purpose of corrections in this nation. (Jacoby and Dunn, 1987: Roberts, 1992).

Doble (1987) reports that a qualitative analysis of public opinion revealed that "Americans feel that the primary goal of the prison system should be to rehabilitate offenders,...but they feel that the prison system is falling short of meeting that goal."

However, just how effective are our correctional systems in rehabilitating those in their charge? Sadly, in the overall analysis, not very good. The nationally reported rates of recidivism for released offenders extend from a low of nearly 50 percent (Beck and Shipley, 1987) to a high of 70 percent (Greenfield, 1985). George Ralston, a retired twenty-year administrator with the Federal Bureau of Prisons, comments that "the penal system could and should greatly contribute to society. As it now operates it is only warehousing those who have offended the community." Resulting in the frightful and expensive cycle of criminalization, victimization and incarceration that is virtually perpetual for large numbers of prisoners in our nations correctional facilities.

## POST-SECONDARY CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMING

Amid this turmoil, there is a program structure that has demonstrated cost-effective success in reducing offender recidivism—Post-Secondary Correctional Education (PSCE). Not only have these program opportunities significantly reduced participant recidivism through the cognitive metamorphosis they create, but also yield highly educated, valuable workers for the country's economy. Pendleton (1988) advocates PSCE programming as "an educational tool designed to reclaim lost manpower to the community through an academic program of rigorous intellectual discipline. . . .(Such post-secondary opportunities seek) to enable incarcerees to redirect their lives through the discipline of a trained mind."

There is a growing body of evidence that such PSCE programs do significantly reduce recidivism and greatly enhance the employment prospects of participants. Thomas (1974) reported that participants of the Burlington County College (NJ) PSCE program experienced a recidivism rate of 10 percent, compared to an overall rate of 80 percent. Thompson (1976) reported similar findings of the Alexander City State Junior College (AL) prison program, with a recidivism rate of 16 percent for inmate-students compared to a national recidivism range of 70-75 percent. Blackburn (1979) noted that involvement in the Maryland Correctional Training Center's PSCE program reduced students' recidivism to 37 percent, while 57 percent of the non-students returned to the system.

In 1980, the Texas Department of Corrections' evaluation of its higher education opportunity concluded that "participation in the junior college program definitely results in lower recidivism rates (Gaither). The next year, Duguid (1981) reported that 14 percent of the University of Victoria's prison program participants recidivated, while a matched group of non-participants suffered a 52 percent return rate. Psychology Today (1983) published a study noting that "recidivism...among inmates who took college classes at the New Mexico State Penitentiary between 1967 and 1977 averaged 15.5 percent, while the general population averaged 68 percent recidivism." The same year, Chase and Dickover (1983) report that graduates from the Folsom Prison Baccalaureate program experienced a zero percent recidivism rate, while the average recidivism rate for California parolees was 23.9 percent for the first year and 55 percent within three years after release. Thorpe, Macdonald, and Gerald (1984) "found that a sample of offenders who earned degrees while incarcerated (in New York) had a substantially lower return rate than the projected rate based on the departments' overall data."

Barker (1986) observed of Boston University's, then seventeen-year-old PSCE program, that the "recidivism rate of its released graduates and matriculated students (about 80) stands thus far at zero." Holloway and Moke's (1986) analysis of the Lebanon Correctional Institution's (OH) college program revealed a 11 percent recidivism rate for participants, compared to an overall return rate of 30 percent for high school dropouts after one year. The District of Columbia's Lorton Prison Program cites a six percent recidivism rate for its students, compared to a 40 percent rate for offenders returned to similar environments (Annual Report, 1990). Finally, in 1991, the New York Department of Correctional Services released its five year study of their Inmate College Program, Which found a "statistically significant" difference in the return rates of participants who earned degrees and those who did not complete program requirements. These "findings suggest that earning a college degree while incarcerated

is positively related to successful post-release adjustments as measured by return to the Department's Custody" (CEA News Notes, 1992).

Post-Secondary Correctional Education graduates are employed at higher rates than other released offenders, suggesting that the education received at least partially compensates for the social stigma attached to their "ex-con" status. Wolf and Sylves (1981) reported that of 300 released graduates of the New York Inmate College Program, 75 percent were employed after their release. Similarly, Holloway and Moke (1986) noted that 67 percent of Associate degree recipients from the Lebanon Correctional Center were employed at the height of the 1981-82 recession, while only 40 percent of the matched group of high school dropouts obtained employment. These employment rates are noteworthy when compared to at the time of arrest, only half of the nation's prisoners were either unemployed or had only part-time positions (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1988) and Littlefield (1990) reported that less than one quarter of Ohio's prison inductees held full-time employment at the time of their arrest.

Anecdotal evidence of the employment viability of PSCE programming can be found with the Corrections Program of the College of Santa Fe (NM) in the way such training assisted in turning around the wasted lives of its successful graduates. One graduate of the program went on to become a physician (M.D.) and another a vice-president of an international company. A female "ex-con" is now a personnel director who has since earned a masters degree. At least four of the program's graduates have gone on to become teachers, passing on the precious gift of knowledge to a new generation. Probably the most interesting success story of such programming is that of a former death row inmate who rose to the directorship of a State Corrections industry department (Burkhead, 1988).

## ACCOUNTING FOR THE CHANGE

To account for the "change" that manifests itself in released PSCE participants socially positive behavior, Parlett (1981) observes "there are strong indications that education at an advanced level changes subjects to a more analytic mode of perception and in addition accelerates moral development." Pendleton (1988) suggests that "there is a cognitive dynamic at work which lends itself to 'rehabilitation' and increased self-actualization."

It is this locus of students' cognitive development, apparently emanating from their involvement in PSCE programming, where Duguid (1981), Baker (1986) and Pendleton (1988) suggest the change or "rehabilitation" is proposed to occur. Their reasoning is supported by the theorem that "cognitive education or revision of certain deficiencies in thinking is believed by some to provide a means of correcting criminal behavior (Volpe et al., 1985). This cognitive development, Cropley (1977) explains, involves a "systematic reinterpretation and reorganization of the information that is received as a result of interaction with the environment," and there are few other environments that are as cognitively challenging as a college classroom, whether behind barred windows or ivy covered halls. Moreover, according to Farnsworth (1974), an individual who has obtained an operational level of cognitive development is one with a "productive personality," which he defines as:

> . . . an individual with cognitive skills, a clear sense of identity and self-esteem, and the ability to deal with ambiguity, uncertainty, and complexity together with the strength and courage to make decisions. He almost always has a highly developed internal value system which commits him to a fundamental integrity in his own behavior and inherent respect and esteem for others.

It is by emphasizing this developmental process within the individual of the nuances of perception (cognition), the forte of liberal arts (PSCE) education (Woditsch, Schlesinger and Giardia, 1987), that the change or "resocialization" of the prisoner manifests itself. As cognitive ability increases, so does self-esteem and thus Pendleton, (1988) reports, the individual acquires an enhanced possibility of self-actualization. As Clark (1970) has explained: "The end sought by rehabilitation is a stable individual returned to community life, capable of constructive participation and incapable of crime." It is by virtue of this internal development process of cognitive abilities that Post-Secondary Correctional Education works in addressing recidivism behavior and yielding economically functional adults for society.

## PROGRAM FUNDING AND ECONOMIC VIABILITY

At the beginning of the 80's, there were over 350 PSCE programs across the country with 27,000 (less than 9 percent of the then national penal population) inmate-students enrolled (Littlefield and Wolford, 1982). Ryan and Woodard (1987) reported that 91 percent of the states offered some form of PSCE opportunities to their penal populations.

Funding for PSCE programs varies from state to state, and thus it is impossible to provide a nationally oriented funding schematic. Littlefield and Wolford (1982), in order of approximate prominence, found that PSCE financing is comprised of: (1) federal Pell grants, (2) state student aid grants, (3) veterans benefits, (4) correctional education budgets, (5) individual student payments, (6) funds from the sponsoring school. From a correctional-management vantage, these programs represent an extremely cost-effective method of efficiently providing correctional programming for numbers of offenders in their institutions.

The economic viability of PSCE programming becomes apparent when reviewed through a cost-analysis method. On average, the cost of a baccalaureate degree for a prisoner from a state supported school, is in the $10,000 range (Taylor, 1989). By comparison, the same degree earned "on-campus" incurs a total education and housing expense of $50,000 (Dillingham, 1990). Correspondingly, the annual $25,000 expense of housing a prisoner is incurred whether the inmate vegetates or educates him/herself during the length of their sentence. Moreover, the education is being purchased at a "discount" rate since the inmate-student is already "housed" in an institution, albeit, dorms with bars. Thus, for ten percent of the cost of one year of incarceration, one year of PSCE programming can be purchased. If such programming is continued for four years, according to the statistics, society will more than likely receive a prisoner whose recidivism rate will be in the low double-or single-digit percentage range. If left uneducated, the same prisoner stands a two-thirds chance of returning again to the penitentiary at society's cost and loss.

## CONCLUSION

As Duguid (1987) observes, Post-Secondary Correctional Education is not being advocated as a panacea for the entire correctional morass of overcrowding and high recidivism rates facing the nation. Not all inmates will qualify for or be interested in such programming opportunities; however, such programming demonstrates that if available it can effectively and efficiently rehabilitate a significant portion of participants. Chase and Dickover (1985) commenting on the Folsom Program note:

"Finally, it seems evident that the public, whose tax dollars on both the state and federal level support this program, have realized a high return on (their) investment." The State's fiduciary responsibility to its citizens behooves it to provide such programming opportunities, ones that assist in realizing the public's mandate of correctional rehabilitation. It is evident that Post-Secondary Correctional Education effectively and efficiently assists in achieving this goal.

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# THE BACONE COLLEGE/OKLAHOMA DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONS ON-SITE POST SECONDARY EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

*by*
**Dave Norfolk**

The program currently being implemented by the Oklahoma Department of Corrections and Bacone College is one which works, and works well.

To provide a historical overview, initial discussion began in the summer of 1989 as a result of a DOC mandate restricting off-site educational programs. Feeling the need to provide educational programs beyond the secondary level, and lacking the capability for satellite programs, Wardens Mike Cody of Jess Dunn Correctional Center and Joy Hadwiger of Eddie Warrior Correctional Center contacted Bacone about the possibility of providing an on-site educational program for their facility. After discussing mutual needs and examining several options, requirements for inmate participation were established. The criteria selected for involvement created as a result of several false steps and errors. We must emphasize that this is not a static list and will continue to be modified as problem areas are identified and solutions found.

1. Inmates must be recommended by their case manager and approved by the facility principal.
2. Inmates must meet Bacone eligibility requirements:
   a. be a high school graduate or have a GED
   b. take and pass Bacone entrance tests
   c. not be in default of a student loan or indebted to any educational institution
   d. provide copies of their high school transcripts and/or GED scores, and, if applicable, college transcripts.
3. Inmates must apply and be eligible for PELL Grant.
4. Once accepted, inmates will be given a job classification of "Bacone student," subject to the requirements and responsibilities of any DOC job classification.
5. Once the semester begins, inmates will be required to complete the semester, disciplinary problems being the only exception.
6. All classes provided by Bacone must be of college level and be transferable to any college or university within the state of Oklahoma.
7. All transcripts will be of standard Bacone issue, with no indication that they were taken at a state institution.
8. All faculty used must be current Bacone faculty, course requirements the same as on campus, and performance expectations identical.
9. Curriculum is designed to provide an AA degree in general studies, with an emphasis on the humanities.
10. A predetermined revolving schedule has been designed providing 6 separate entry opportunities.
11. Program length is 5 semesters (12 hours/semester) and totals 62 credit hours. Inmates must take at least 6 hours, but no more than 12.
12. Texts will be provided by Bacone College on a loan basis and must be returned at the end of each semester. Supplies are the responsibility of the inmate.
13. Inmates must earn a GPA of 2.00 (on a 4.0 scale) each semester, earn no grade lower than a C to maintain guaranteed involvement in the program by DOC, and must maintain regular college eligibility as determined by Bacone.
14. Documentation of inmate academic progress will be provided to JDCC by Bacone College every four weeks.
15. Inmates have the option to stop or continue at the end of each semester.

To avoid added paperwork and job changes, participants are required to take a Physical Education class in the summer. Tutoring classes in English and Algebra are available for those who need assistance, or for those facing Algebra, Comp. I or Comp. II the following semester.

For those not meeting Oklahoma high school college entrance requirements, an acknowledgment

waiver must be signed. This waiver indicates understanding that high school deficiencies must be made up if the inmate wishes to receive a diploma. (In conjunction with the DOC Chapter II program, we are currently devising a summer curriculum designed to make up these deficiencies.)

The initial group of twelve (12) has grown to thirty (30) and in the past year, the program has been implemented at the Eddie Warrior Correctional Center (a women's facility) where enrollment has already grown to 30. Last semester, the GPA at both facilities was 3.12 and 3.28 respectively. Inmates at other facilities are requesting transfers to both JDCC and EWCC so that they can participate in this program, and discussion is underway about beginning similar programs at other regional DOC sites.

This past spring we graduated our first student, Ron Brooks, who completed his program with a GPA exceeding 3.25! Three females and one male participants remained at Bacone upon release and several others have transferred to other colleges or are in the process of doing so when released. Our dropout rate for reasons other than disciplinary or release is less than our campus rate (12 percent vs. 38 percent) while our stopout rate is a mere 2 percent.

There can be little doubt that this program has great intrinsic merit for the Department of Corrections. It is providing a cost free, quality educational program to both DOC and its constituents. Secondly, it is providing a post secondary experience to those who have the desire and capability to utilize it. It is giving those "long termers" something that will enhance their productivity upon release, and giving "short termers" an educational head start. All of this is provided by an experienced, certified faculty, and credentialized by a North Central accredited college.

Extrinsic gains lie mostly in the affective domain. This program is offering to those whose academic backgrounds have been less than satisfying, an opportunity for a new start free of any pre-incarceration prejudice or pre-judgement. The interpersonal skills required in a live classroom are unattainable in any other format, and are virtual training laboratories for the skills required to survive in society.

A determination to "make it work" must permeate the program from its inception. Those involved must be dedicated to this goal, and the time required to solve problems must be given to the program and the inmates who participate. Sensitivity to their needs, quality support and counseling, and constant reinforcement are requisites for their success. If these interests and roles are assumed by all, satisfactory results and a rewarding experience will be gained by all.

# The Correctional Practicum: Invitational Education in Participation, Self-awareness & Professionalism

by
F. Lamarr Crowe
&
John Zappala

This article was written to introduce the correctional practicum concept to educators and correctional administrators and to provide basic instruction on how to develop a practicum in one's curriculum.

"Nobody said it would be like this." This is not an uncommon lament of new corrections officers as they realize that "the idealized expectation of their chosen career does not match the reality" (Mills, 1990).

Previous research on the structure of public attitude toward corrections has shown that it is "diverse, multidimensional and complex" (Cullen et al., 1989). This characterization would also appear applicable to the students pursuing careers in corrections, even after completing five required classes. Students reported that they saw maintaining order as a core feature of the correctional officer role, harbored some negative attitudes towards inmates, but lacked a clear understanding of the duties and responsibilities of the professional corrections officers. Students have read and heard time and again what corrections officers should do. Much less have they been told what those officers should not do. "Progress," according to Chief Probation Officer J.P. Murphy, "is encouraged only when learned what should be avoided or discarded. More and more, we need the guidance found in the reports or expressions of practical workers whose struggles to change patterns, control and inspire prisoners have borne fruitful results. These accomplishments and processes make up the body of knowledge and skills which should be a part of the professional training and personality equipment" (1987) of every corrections officer.

These data lent support to the implementation of an eighty hour (five semester credits) practicum course in the Corrections Officers Training Program at Mid Michigan Community College in 1989. One of the purposes of this monograph is to outline the development and implementation of this curriculum component at the community college level.

## THE FIRST STEP: DOING THE HOMEWORK

Developing a practicum experience in the Criminal Justice curriculum is a relatively new innovation, at the community college level, and in order to be effective it must take into account the characteristics of (1) other successful programs and (2) the characteristics of its program participant.

In response to the first characteristic, a systematic focus of other superior programs was initiated. Programs were reviewed that met the following requirements:

1. Strong emphasis on a strict adherence to fundamental institutional regulations and security requirements.

2. Positive evaluations from all participants in the program, including those from the correctional institution.

In an effort to address the concerns of the practicum participant, the program had to:

1. Be accessible to the student.
2. Promote flexible scheduling.
3. Facilitate interaction between the community college, the correctional facility, and the intern.

## THE NEXT STEP: DEVELOPING INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT

Establishing a new course at Mid Michigan Community College is as much a "paper business" as it is a "people Business" (Mills, 1990). Knowing that the concept would need to be approved by a curriculum council, it was prudent to develop immediate support from faculty and other

administrators. Specifically, their recommendations and opinions for course development were solicited. It also helps to anticipate the litany of questions that would surface such as:

1. Just what is it that the practicum is expected to accomplish?
2. Will this program encourage excellence and provide a maximum opportunity for students to develop?
3. Will students be challenged to achieve to the maximum of their abilities?
4. Will the success in the academic setting translate to the work environment?
5. Does the training program have measurable performance objectives for each lesson plan?
6. Is the practicum syllabus sufficiently detailed to be used by others?
7. Will the practicum maintain accurate individual training records for each participant?
8. How will the practicum evaluate its effectiveness and make changes to improve the learning process for trainees?

## STEP THREE: THE QUEST FOR CHAMPIONS

Often in corrections, the terms "firm and fair are used to describe what an officer's behavior toward offenders should be" (Gilbert, 1986). The same descriptors apply to the practicum program coordinators' behavior towards students. Mid Michigan Community College was fortunate to obtain the cooperation of two key individuals who facilitated participants' success.

### THE PROGRAM COORDINATOR

The assumption that individuals can be trained to become professionals appears in much of the related literature. In addition to offering basic job preparation, higher education shares in the responsibility of developing values and beliefs in its students (Saltzman, 1986). For that reason, the college hired a professional program coordinator to assist students in bridging the gap between "what they learned in the classroom, and the way we do it here" (Cheatwood and Hayeslip, 1986). Essentially, the coordinator outlined the students' responsibilities and expectations, served as a liaison between the correctional facility and the college, and developed a support group structure for the group of practicum participants. The development of the support group was perhaps the most important in that many students often appeared to lack sufficient readiness to handle difficult and potentially dangerous situations. This program coordinator-faculty member, wanted his students to be mentally, emotionally and intellectually prepared for their field work.

### THE CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION FACILITATOR

If training practicums are to be useful in the real world of the correctional institution, it behooves the student to develop a cooperative relationship with a key individual on site. What better resource could be called upon to help our students learn the processes of mutual cooperation, communication, and leadership then a representative of the correctional facility? Consequently, the Assistant Deputy Warden volunteered to assist our participants in developing: 1) performance responsibilities; 2) procedures for carrying out these responsibilities; 3) practical skills for performing these tasks; and 4) the expectations of individuals that supervise them.

## STEP FOUR: BEHIND THE SCENES

Leaving the college classroom and venturing into the world of corrections can be a very exciting, yet apprehensive step for the student. This non-traditional approach allows the student to apply correctional concepts learned in the classroom in the other classroom the correctional institution. As Duley (1980) suggests, the student will be introduced to the work place and the circumstances of reality.

The Corrections practicum is an integrative process. Not only is there the challenge of applying classroom theory to field practice, but also involved is the student's need for increased self awareness and the development of professional skills.

Before the student is allowed to participate, legal ramifications of off-campus classes must be addressed. Being in a correctional setting can be viewed as a potentially high-risk and dangerous placement. It is therefore instrumental that a liability clause be signed by the student. This form is one of several that should be completed by the student and the internship agency. Black (1987) states that these forms may not prevent future legal action, but they indicate a mutual understanding of potential risks involved in placement.

While at the practicum setting, the student will be instrumental in carrying out the goals of the correctional facility. Perrow (1961) identifies both official and operative goals. Official goals are defined as the basic purposes of the institution as cited by statute, policy and procedure manuals. On the other hand, operative goals reflect human relations, cooperation and available resources. The practicum student will become very much aware of both.

While at the "correctional classroom," the student will be a participant-observer. This means that the student will be studying the correctional environment, its staff, inmates and every day events and situations. As Jorgenson (1989) describes the student as participant-observer:

> The methodology of participant observation is appropriate for studies of almost every aspect of human existence. Through participant observation, it is possible to describe what goes on, who or what is involved, when and where things happen, how they occur and why—at least from the standpoint of participants—things happen as they do in particular situations. The methodology of participant observation is exceptional for studying processes, relationships, among people and events, the organization of people and events, continuities over time, and patterns, as well as the immediate sociocultural contexts in which human existence unfolds.

While at the institutional setting, the practicum student will be able to measure the agency's efficiency and effectiveness. According to Hall (1977) "effectiveness is the degree to which an agency realizes its goals, while efficiency is the amount of resources used to produce a unit of output." Thus, the student should be able to see how efficient the agency runs and if it is effective as well.

## THE FINAL STEP

Bringing the students back to the classroom was an integral part of the student's support system. Meeting weekly to discuss feelings and experiences with a peer group expanded the learning experience and provided a broader perspective of the agency. The program coordinator would also discuss such topical issues as political, socioeconomic and legal issues; ethical standards; formal and informal structures; and correctional goals and standards.

The student was assisted in assessing his own individual experiences as well as career planning. A written assignment dealing with correctional policy or an incident report was due weekly and turned in for grading. A final report was also assigned which summarized the entire practicum experience including student expectations, feelings, experiences, evaluations, and related comments.

## CONCLUSION

It was through the combination of these components that enabled Mid Michigan Community College's Corrections Officers' Training Program to evolve as it currently exists. Inherent in the program's success is the ongoing need to assess learner outcomes. Specifically, the program planner can achieve that by: 1) developing clear and concise written statements of intended learning outcomes; 2) sequencing learning outcomes so that learners are able to recognize their progress toward achieving the stated learning outcomes; 3) ensuring that program content, instructional materials and delivery processes are relevant and timely for achieving intended learning outcomes; (Incidentally, 75 percent of our program students have been placed in correctional-related employment.); and 4) evaluating the learner's performances in terms of intended learning outcomes.

After the Correctional Practicum it is believed that the student, if not better prepared for a career in corrections, was at least able to answer that question, "Is this really for me?"

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**WAIVER OF LIABILITY**

Each Corrections student realizes the potential hazard of the field internship experience. The student nevertheless agrees to waive all claims of liability against the program coordinator and staff, Mid Michigan Community College, and the sponsoring internship agency.

_____ _____

Date Student Signature

Mid Michigan Community College
Harrison, Michigan

Corrections Officer Training Program

**STUDENT'S INTERNSHIP PROGRAM AGREEMENT FORM**

The Field Internship is a 5 credit hour course completed entirely in the field with a minimum of 50 hours of placement with an operational corrections agency. In addition, four orientation meetings will be required. At least one-on-site visit will be arranged by the program coordinator.

The intern will be responsible for completing daily log sheets, eight administrative/incident reports and a final report.

All placements must be approved by the program coordinator. The Internship work experience is the product of a mutual agreement between Mid Michigan Community College and outside cooperating correctional agencies to provide students with both practical and educational experience.

I have read this agreement form on the operation of the Internship Program at Mid Michigan Community College and agree to abide by all conditions stated therein.

_____ _____

Date Student Signature

Mid Michigan Community College
Continuing Education Office
Harrison, Michigan
(TX - 517/386-7792)
Corrections Officer Training Program

## AGENCY AGREEMENT FORM

Agency _____

Address _____

_____

Telephone _____ Zip Code _____

Please be advised that the above identified agency agrees to accept

Mr./Ms. _____ as a Student Intern for the

following time period _____

During the student's internship assignment, the contact person within our agency will be

_____
Name

_____
Position

_____
Telephone

_____ _____
Date Signature of Administrator & Title

Mid Michigan Community College
Harrison, Michigan

## INTERNSHIP SCHEDULE

_____ _____
Student Name Student Number

Agency Name _____

Address _____

_____

Telephone Number (  )_____

Contact Person _____

Telephone/Ext. # (  )_____

This is a schedule of my internship program.

| | DATES | TIME |
|---|---|---|
| Week 1 | _____ | _____ |
| Week 2 | _____ | _____ |
| Week 3 | _____ | _____ |
| Week 4 | _____ | _____ |
| Week 5 | _____ | _____ |
| Week 6 | _____ | _____ |
| Week 7 | _____ | _____ |
| Week 8 | _____ | _____ |
| Week 9 | _____ | _____ |

Internship Phone # (  )_____

Residence Phone # (  )_____

Mid Michigan Community College
Harrison, Michigan 48625-9447

Corrections Certification Program
Continuing Education Office
(517) 386-7792

## INTERNSHIP PLACEMENT FORM

Student Name _____

Student Number_____ D.O.B._____ Age_____

Race/Sex_____ Height/Weight_____

Michigan Driver's License Number _____

Social Security Number _____

Home Address_____

_____

Home Phone (  )_____

Work Phone (  )_____

Contact Person_____
(parent, spouse, friend)

Telephone Number (  )_____

Interests _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Comments _____

_____

_____

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_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Mid Michigan Community College

## CORRECTIONS ADMINISTRATIVE REPORT

_____

Student's Name Agency

Date_____ Trainer's Signature_____

Report #_____

Subject of the Report_____

_____

NARRATIVE

## STUDENT INTERNSHIP EVALUATION

Student Name _____

Agency _____

Address _____

Period Covered: From_____ To_____

Please evaluate the intern by circling the appropriate number below. (No. 5 being the highest.) Also, please write brief comments regarding the student's performance with your agency.

| | | | | | | Unknown |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Appearance | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | _____ |
| General Attitude | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | _____ |
| Interest | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | _____ |
| Relations with Others | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | _____ |
| Accepting Responsibility | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | _____ |
| Punctuality | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | _____ |
| Reports | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | _____ |
| Potentialities | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | _____ |
| General Conduct | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | _____ |

Comments:

Rated by _____ _____

Signature Title

# *PUBLIC SAFETY AND JUSTICE CAREERS: A VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY'S PROGRAM FOR PROFESSIONALISM*

*by*
**Paul W. Keve**

*The worlds of academe and of operational agencies often remain aloof, but not if they are to achieve their potential for excellence. In some heartening instances they find a symbiotic bond that gives new vitality to both, a bond that just might be found between one VCU department and several governmental agencies in Virginia. For here is a faculty group doing research on drug abuse issues, on juvenile delinquency and a wide range of risk control subjects. At the same time it is using the knowledge gained for offering institutes for the education of managers in fields of highway safety, police corrections, or other regulatory agencies.*

*It is a VCU department with a relatively recent and dynamic academic program, surely making an important place for itself in serving government agencies that until recent years had felt little kinship with higher education. The Department of Justice and Risk Administration is making its presence felt wherever criminal justice and regulatory agencies are coping with increasingly complex social, technical, and legal problems. Its development here to be told is rooted in significant social conditions of the country's recent past.*

## INTRODUCTION

While Chief Justice Earl Warren was in office he had occasion to speak at a conference of criminal justice careerists on the subject of professional training for their work. He related the story of an old friend, a former top official in the San Francisco Police Department, who had once told him what it had been like to start work as a police officer in his day. When he was appointed, sometime early in the century, he reported to work entirely ignorant of the duties and conduct of the job, was handed a badge and a gun and sworn in. His beat was pointed out to him on a wall map and without further instruction he was sent out to enforce the law in that area. Just like that, on his first day, he was a police officer.

But it was not that easy; after a few days of walking his beat this new officer yearned for some instruction and advice, so he went to ask for help from a veteran police officer he knew. He found his friend, though well experienced, wholly unprepared to formulate any useful instruction except to say, "Well son, always take good care of your feet."

It was a day when police departments were intensely political, with new officers hired through political preferment, and with a resultant absence of any vestige of professionalism. (As an extreme example of this, the city of Indianapolis for a while had two police departments: one Republican and one Democrat.) Such conditions inevitably left the police with low public esteem. When the New York City mayor in 1904 persuaded a man of integrity and prestige to take over as police commissioner his reluctant appointee was appalled at the prospect of entering such an unsavory world. He later wrote, "I must confess it was with a heavy heart that I turned my face towards that antique and shabby palace, the sepulchre of reputation, that tomb of character, that morgue of political ambition, that cavern of intrigue and dissimulation — the Police Headquarters" (McAdoo, 1906).

## UNCERTAIN BEGINNINGS IN VIRGINIA

Though Virginia police agencies escaped some of the worst aspects of political intrigue, they shared the general condition of uncertain competence stemming from an absence of any special education or training. Until the City of Richmond acquired the Mosque around 1940, there was no pre-service training for its police officers beyond the arrangement for a new officer to tag along with an experienced officer for whatever seemed a suitable

period of time. Certain that the police precinct stations had basement firing ranges where new officers were given basic instruction and after the Mosque was acquired, all the weapons firing practice was centralized in a firing range adapted from its bowling alley. A few hours of classroom instruction were started at the same time.

For police agencies state-wide a modest beginning in training had been inaugurated in the early 1930's through the joint efforts of the Virginia Municipal League and the Virginia Association of Chiefs of Police. That program, starting in 1932, received financial help from the State Department of Education and employed a captain from the New York State Police to manage the training. The state was divided into 20 zones within which training programs were offered, and each police agency was invited to send one officer to receive instruction on how to train the officers in his agency. At first this training was just a one-week course; and as these new instructors, thus prepared, returned to their home departments, they had to persuade the officers there to attend training classes on their own time. Eventually the training periods were expanded to three weeks, and the instruction for the Richmond area officers was located in space lent by the University of Richmond. Still later, with instructors borrowed from the FBI, the training was moved to the State Police Headquarters.

Commendable as this seemed, the training supplied through these years was only for a selected few police officers and was not actual pre-service training. It was not until 1955 that the first training class for all new Richmond police recruits was established, and then the length of the course was only one week. Within two years this had been expanded to a period of two weeks.

## CORRECTIONS AND THE JUDICIARY DISCOVER TRAINING

In general the country's slowness to supply training for police was partly a matter of the public's reluctance to finance the cost, but partly also a resistance by the rank and file of police who saw no need for it. Nor were the police alone in this tendency, for their inclinations were well matched by other components of the criminal justice system. Corrections workers, too, whether prison guards or probation or parole officers, were in most jurisdictions expected to start work with no more training than might be gained by a few days of watching another person at work, a process that was often a matter of the bad habits of one generation being passed to the next. Among both police and corrections personnel there had long been a kind of macho pride in having learned their jobs in the well known school of hard knocks, augmented by a ready contempt for "book learning."

Even the judiciary was inclined to deny itself training, an aspect of its determination to preserve the independence of each judge's decision-making role. A project which served as an ice-breaker for judicial training appeared in Pittsburgh in the late 1950's where the juvenile court judge obtained a foundation grant to finance several training seminars for invited judges of other juvenile courts. The time was ripe, the response was positive, and the idea began to infect the judiciary in general. In 1961 a series of judicial seminars was conducted nationwide, and by the next year a three-year training project for judges was started with a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health (Clark, 1964). In due course this settled into a permanent training program for juvenile court judges. Judges of other courts caught the idea; and in July 1964 a new entity, the National College of State Trial Judges, convened its first training session with over 100 judges present at the University of Colorado. This, too, became a permanent program, soon moved to its own building at the University of Nevada.

Meanwhile police agencies, stimulated by the prestige of the FBI and its training academy at Quantico, Virginia, gradually developed more appreciation for technical, professional training. When a police chief's certificate from the FBI Academy became a prized status credential this had its natural effect in making training desirable. Chief Justice Warren Burger pointed out this effect, commenting that " One of the great, and perhaps most lasting, contributions of the Federal Bureau of Investigation was the founding of the National Police Academy . . .(which gave) advanced training to thousands of state and local police personnel" (Criminal Justice, 1983-84).

It becomes obvious that the focus of concern here is in both of two parallel areas: (1) technical job training by or for the criminal justice agencies; and (2) the need for broad academic education with college credit. Often it is difficult to separate their histories, as both the job training and the college education ideas had

always been neglected, if not actually scorned, until the early 1960's when at last both were being advocated, often by the same voices.

## AUGUST VOLLMER AND A VISION OF PROFESSIONALISM

In police work the earliest and most effective voice was longtime Berkeley, California police chief August Vollmer, who urged professional job training but was perhaps more noted for his touting of college education for police officers. His seminal writings on many aspects of police professionalization earned him wide respect in his field until by the end of the 1920's he became the acknowledged leader of a movement to establish police schools in colleges and universities. In 1931 when Vollmer became the first professor of police administration at the University of California, he helped organize the first college-level training program in the country at San Jose State College (Douthit, 1975).

In response to Vollmer's urging, by the early 1930's a very few universities initiated curricula for students in law enforcement, but the idea did not take hold more generally until after World War II when the combination of returning servicemen looking for jobs and the availability of G.I. loans encouraged a rapid increase in the college offerings (Walker, 1976). By this time, too, with the rapid growth of high technology permeating all aspects of society, there was certain to be a felt need for specialized education to deal with the imposing new technologies available to both the police and corrections fields. New social pressures were having their effect during the 1960's "A related series of social crises — urban racial disorders, anti-war political protest, and the emergence of a widespread drug culture — thrust the American policeman to the forefront of national attention . . . . In some instances it became apparent that the conduct of police officers served to perpetuate and even escalate the violence."

Until this time, and notwithstanding the earlier urgings of Vollmer, the universities seemed unaware of their potential for service to this field. A pertinent comment was made in 1971 by one scholar who later joined the VCU faculty in criminal justice. He observed that "efforts to recruit well-educated personnel for service in the correctional field have been handicapped for years because the colleges and universities were not interested in offering courses which would have as their major goal the preparation of students for careers in corrections" (Sharp, 1971). Of course it could be argued that universities would not offer the courses if there were no demand for them.

## THE POLITICAL ARRIVAL OF LAW ENFORCEMENT TRAINING

By the early 1960's the demand was evident, augmented by President Johnson's politically astute war on crime. When Congress enacted the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) in 1968, there was already a new interest in specialized education and training for criminal justice careers, and so a substantial portion of the LEAA money was allocated to education. At that time it was evident that less than half of the country's correctional agencies provided any regular pre-service staff training (Corrections, 1967). Relevant college education was similarly slighted. "Vollmer's idea of higher education for police officers did not take hold generally in either colleges or police departments until the late 1960's" (Sherman, 1978).

The education component of the LEAA law was the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP), which supported a dramatic increase in educational offerings for careerists. During its first eight years LEEP granted $234 million for scholarships for about 250,000 students. Its effect is seen in data gathered by the International Association of Chiefs of Police which counted 39 baccalaureate programs in law enforcement in 1966-67, and then found 376 such programs nine years later (Sherman, 1978). An appraisal of the involvement of corrections personnel in the first eight years of LEEP was that about 1,000 colleges and universities had supplied courses to "40,000 prison guards and probation and parole officers" (Service, 1979).

With an eye to the respected FBI Academy and its positive effect on police training, the corrections field inevitably began to think of a similar model for corrections professionals. In 1971 the Department of Justice sponsored a "National Conference on Corrections" in Williamsburg, attended by about 300 invited leaders from the corrections field nationwide. Among the many recommendations emerging from this meeting was one that urged creation of a mobile National Academy "to assist with planning and leadership training with respect to a full range of correctional programs, also

coordinate with the university training programs being conducted" (LEAA Report, 1971).

When federal standards for the corrections field were published in 1973 they provided that "Each state should establish by 1975 a State plan for coordinating criminal justice education to assure a sound academic continuum from an associate of arts through graduate studies in criminal justice" (Corrections, 1973). The State of Virginia responded in 1977 with its own statement echoing the earlier federal goal. A task force developing the Virginia goals strongly urged that "educational leaders, state planners and criminal justice staff members should meet to plan academic programs in the criminal justice field. . . The task force also feels strongly that rewards should be provided to encourage in-service staff to pursue educational opportunities in the criminal justice field." The same task force urged similar college training for police officers (Report of the Task Force, 1977).

## PUBLIC SAFETY EDUCATION DISCOVERS A CAMPUS HOME IN RICHMOND

As these various currents of escalating interest in criminal justice education rapidly developed during the 1960's the Richmond Professional Institute (RPI) of the College of William and Mary was already asserting its determination to offer the needed types of educational courses. RPI was an obvious school to be responsive to such a need. Organized in 1917 as the Richmond School of Social Work and Public Health, after eight years it surrendered its independence for the advantages of being a corporate part of the College of William and Mary. In 1939 it adopted the name Richmond Professional Institute, which held significance regarding its academic focus; a professional institute was defined as: a college or university which arranges most of the programs of study it offers around occupations or professions" (Hibbs, 1973).

By the 1960's RPI had joined the trend of other Virginia colleges and had abandoned the racial, white-only policy always in effect until then. It was offering education for careerists in art, design, music, distributive education, business, accounting, advertising, speech and drama, and others. It was ready to add the field of law enforcement.

In 1959 Henry H. Hibbs (*who had headed the school since its inception, retired*) and RPI welcomed a new president, George J. Oliver. It is said that Dr. Oliver came to a school that was a professional institute but had it well on the way to being a comprehensive college when he left in 1967 (Hibbs, 1973). President Oliver perceived the developing interest in law enforcement education, and in 1964 he designated a newly arrived professor, Carroll R. Hormachea, to develop a two-year associate degree program and to teach courses in this subject area.

It was not easy, of course, to find the necessary faculty for any new educational discipline. Over time the educational program will itself generate the quality of practitioners who will eventually be a pool from which to draw teachers with both education and experience credentials. But at the start this talent is likely to be rare, and a look at the RPI faculty and courses in 1964 confirms it. In that year a part-time instructor, L.B. Reed, was enlisted to teach the first courses in law enforcement. Hormachea, with his graduate degree in sociology and full-time status, was an appropriate choice to serve as the generalist in developing and coordinating the overall program, while Reed, a former FBI agent and former police chief of Kansas City, Missouri, was typical of the various specialists who were used on a part-time basis to teach in their specific areas of expertise.

In the first few years there was necessarily an over-dependence on the extremely small teaching staff which was expanded to two full-time people only after three years. The second instructor, who joined Hormachea in 1967, was William A. Bechtel, former chief of police for Redondo Beach, California and holder of a master's degree in police administration. The catalogs for the next three years show him loaded down with instruction of courses in Police Organization and Administration, Introduction to Law Enforcement, Criminal Investigation, Criminal Procedure and Evidence, and Traffic Planning and Management.

To round out the curriculum there were "borrowed" instructors such as John Velier, chief of the campus police, who started the subject area of industrial security; Michael Morchower, an attorney and former FBI agent who taught forensic science; Martin Choworowsky from the sociology department who taught police-community relations (Hormachea Interview).

Although the LEAA and LEEP programs did not appear until

1968, there was a predecessor agency, the Office of Law Enforcement Administration (OLEA), which in the mid-1960's began providing grants for educational programs. It was an essential first step as the scholarships to be funded by LEEP would be of little effect if there were few educational programs where they could be used. In the fall of 1966 the new RPI program received a grant of $15,000 to pay start-up costs for development of a four-year degree program, and in the following year an implementation grant of $25,000 was received.

The activity of getting the grants and promoting the new curriculum involved, quite importantly, a significant mix of concerned and influential people. RPI President Oliver maintained the necessary administrative support, but more specific momentum was supplied by criminal justice professionals who saw the need for the educational program. Major Frank Duling, later to be the Richmond police chief, gave active assistance in seeking the OLEA grant and in encouraging the planning. The first harbinger of the future correctional component in the curriculum appeared when warden David Heritage at the federal correctional institution in Petersburg made his interest known, urging development of courses that would be pertinent for prison personnel. His was a lone voice on this point, however; at this time the curriculum planning remained related only to the interests of police agencies.

## THE PRINCIPAL ACTORS APPEAR AND PLANNING BEGINS

The major person on the national scene to be drawn into the planning was James D. Stinchcomb, supervisor of the educational unit of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP). During 1965 Frank Duling went with Hormachea to visit the IACP headquarters in Washington, D.C., to get the help of that agency. Stinchcomb was effectively responsive, helping to obtain the OLEA grant and giving helpful suggestions on courses needed. At his suggestion the initial broad curriculum was tightened to bring a more practical concentration of courses in criminal justice subjects. An advisory committee was formed to use the knowledge and encourage the support of the police agencies. Members included heads of such organizations as the State Police, State Capitol Police, and the chiefs of police departments of Richmond, Henrico County, Chesterfield County, Fort Lee, Hopewell, and Colonial Heights.

When Professor Hormachea first began the associate degree program in 1964, it was placed within the School of Applied Social Science under the general direction of its chairman, Lois Washer, formerly a professor in the School of Social Work. Later, by 1970, the program was shifted to become one of five academic units within the new School of Community Services, under Dean Harland Westermann.

## A NEW DEPARTMENT CREATED

Although Dr. Westermann's background as a planner had not included experience with law enforcement training, he had been quick to recognize the current new popularity of this educational subject and gave it his wholehearted support. The focus of the program promptly broadened. The catalog for 1970-71 asserted that "The major objective of the department is to prepare young men and woman for professional careers in law enforcement and other areas in the broad field of criminal justice."

Taking advantage of Stinchcomb's availability, Westermann arranged for him to take an evening class on the Mary Washington College campus in response to the interest of police agencies in Northern Virginia. In this and other ways Stinchcomb's involvement with the program continued until in 1971 he was offered, and he accepted appointment as the first chairman of the new department then being created with the designation of Administration of Justice and Public Safety.

Westermann had already begun expansion of the curriculum and the faculty resources. In the fall of 1970, FBI agent and attorney James Hague had been recruited to provide courses in legal issues of policing, a subject easily broadened only a little later to include legal issues of concern to corrections. At the same time Steve V. Westerberg, formerly with the Federal Bureau of Prisons, joined the faculty prepared to teach courses relevant to corrections. (Hormachea moved to the Department of Urban Studies and Planning, though continuing to teach in the justice program for two more years.)

The selection of Stinchcomb as the department chairman represented Westermann's wish to have a person of national experience and reputation who could both strengthen and expand

this new area of education. Stinchcomb had the initiative required in designing the curriculum to be a full bachelor's degree program and working toward study area options in corrections, juvenile justice, traffic safety, fire management, occupational and industrial safety, in addition to the original police-related studies. On his arrival in the summer of 1971 his first effort was toward the traffic safety subjects.

In 1966 Congress had passed the National Highway Safety Act; the state of Virginia passed its own such act in 1970 to take advantage of the federal legislation and funds. Stinchcomb, well aware of this source, contacted John Hanna, director of the state's highway safety program, applying for a grant of $12,000 to develop a highway safety curriculum. The grant was received, and the curriculum development started promptly with the hiring of R. Michael McDonald who was just completing his master's degree in safety education at Central Missouri State University. McDonald immediately began organizing a traffic safety center through which he and two other instructors offered a dynamic program of regional workshops throughout the state to teach traffic safety and hazardous materials management to police and appropriate regulatory agencies. (McDonald left after three years to teach at Indiana University but returned to VCU to stay in 1977. Subsequently he received his Ed.D. from Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. John Hanna, after helping with the original planning, served regularly after that as an adjunct instructor.)

## THE POTENTIAL FOR DIVERSE SERVICES

An unusual spin-off of this activity was a contract made with the government of Saudi Arabia in 1979 for the training in highway safety of 15 members of its police forces. Phillip Ash, a former police chief, had just come on the faculty to teach police administration subjects, and he was assigned as project director of the Saudi program for its 18 month duration. Fortunately his previous work included command of military police operations in several foreign countries, one being Tunisia where he had gained some orientation to the Arabic culture. In organizing the project the first task was to employ two language experts to teach the Arabians English before they then could be trained in the highway safety subjects. Altogether it was a stimulating, satisfying experience.

The parallel development of the corrections and juvenile options after Stinchcomb arrived was accomplished partially with start-up grants. One new faculty member at the time, Raymond Cienek, wrote a proposal which resulted in a grant from the Criminal Justice Services agency to fund a position in juvenile justice studies. For this, Clement Sydnor was hired from the juvenile services of the State Department of Corrections.

The Corrections Department also made a contribution of its own to the adult corrections studies after Stinchcomb proposed a unique cooperative arrangement. The director of corrections agreed to furnish the salary for a full professor with the understanding that he would carry less than a full teaching load while at the same time serving as a consultant to the Corrections Department. Selection of this professor was to be a cooperative decision of both Stinchcomb and the director of corrections. The fortunate first choice in this post was E. Preston Sharp, a long-time corrections administrator who at this point was just retiring from his position as director of the American Correctional Association. After three years with VCU Dr. Sharp retired in 1977 and was replaced by another corrections careerist. The same arrangement continued until a later director of corrections terminated this position in 1982 as a budget reduction measure. By then, however, the corrections curriculum was strongly represented in several faculty positions and was preparing numbers of students for careers in a variety of adult and juvenile correctional jobs.

In 1979 the department reached an important goal and a much desired accomplishment with approval of its accreditation by the Criminal Justice Accreditation Council. By that time it had gone beyond its well developed undergraduate program to create a graduate curriculum and was beginning to plan toward eventual initiation of a doctoral program.

Although the department by this time was gaining the respect of both police and corrections agencies, it was a notable fact that the students were not predominantly careerists already employed by such agencies, enrolled to seek more training. Instead, they were mainly average students who were being introduced to the field, given broad education, and prepared for eventual recruitment by

criminal justice agencies.

## A STRATEGY FOR BUILDING CREDIBILITY

Just as Dean Westermann had sought a person of national repute to head the department, Stinchcomb also sought outstanding careerists to give prestige to the various subjects. He explained the importance of this was that "VCU was new and unknown; we needed program visibility, and that's how I operated the staffing strategy... We had no alumni, and nobody had yet made it big in the field. We needed to do everything we could to call attention to the program." (Letter to Author)

In the corrections area Dr. Sharp served effectively to give prestigious visibility, while police work several persons highly qualified in police management were brought on board. James P. Morgan, appointed in 1974, had become respected for outstanding police work in New York; at VCU he began with full-time teaching and later was selected by the University to head its campus police department. After that he continued as an adjunct instructor for several years.

Hardly more than a year after Farmer's arrival Stinchcomb resigned to accept appointment as director of a law enforcement training center in Florida, and the long process of recruitment of his replacement was begun. Another of special significance was Dr. David J. Farmer who came to the faculty in 1980 after six years as director of the police division on the National Institute of Justice.

## THE PROGRAM MATURES: BROAD EDUCATION FOR PROFESSIONAL CAREERISTS

The choice of Farmer for chairman was popular, and the department's progress continued strongly. In fact, it becomes difficult to distribute the credits precisely between Stinchcomb and Farmer as the many accomplishments under the first chairman were smoothly carried forward under the second without loss of momentum and with still more quality growth being continually generated. This does not mean, however, that the change of chairman brought no change in administrative style or philosophical direction.

The department under Stinchcomb, for all its broadening of the range of academic subject areas, was yet tied to the history of an elemental need for more competent constabularies and more competent correctional workers. The curriculum did not venture far from a purpose of enhancing and reinforcing the technical professionalism of the practitioners, although for this stage of its development this was appropriate. In addition to contributing to the training of agency personnel it served the further important purpose of whetting an interest in broader education. It also began the process of widening the perspective of these public servants to a realization that police and corrections are not islands, but that they and a variety of regulatory agencies with their specialized functions must work together in a common concern for all areas of public service in risk control.

The highway safety program, under a new name, the Transportation Safety Training Center, was an important element in the department's broadening focus. Fully supported by funds received from the State Division of Motor Vehicles, the program by this time employed three faculty members in addition to its director, McDonald, bringing expertise in the areas of accident investigation and reconstruction, vehicle occupant safety, and traffic records management. Their "teaching" was entirely off-campus with presentations of training sessions by regions throughout the state. In 1985 one of McDonald's instructors, Robert Breitenbach, moved up to replace him as director while McDonald was transferred to start a separate new program of studies in risk administration. The transportation program continued under Breitenbach and by 1990, with nearly two decades of experience, it had gained a high degree of respect among the state's transportation services, making Virginia unique in supplying this type of specialized program.

McDonald's new assignment was another substantive example of Farmer's interest in broadening the usefulness of the department. With one other faculty expert joining McDonald, they had brought together several subject areas that had begun with a planning grant received in 1980 from the Virginia Department of Labor and Industry. The product was a degree program covering the various risk control subjects such as fire prevention, plant security, and occupational and industrial safety.

Here was a recognition that government in this century has recognized its wider

responsibility for risk control and has fostered state and federal initiatives for control of an expanding range of hazards. Just 100 years ago the first U.S. federal safety standards for miners were enacted; the Meat Inspection Act and a Pure Food and Drug Act were passed in 1906; and after 1960 a growing public consciousness of the infinite variety of threats to the environment and to work place safety brought new federal laws to promote highway safety, to control crime, to promote clean air and water, to control toxic substances, and to address many other public hazards.

At VCU the studies in administration of justice and public safety matured in the 1980's to be unique among academic programs in the country for this broad, inclusive view of public safety topics and the concept of preparing practitioners with broadly focused education. To introduce this significant new view of the department's mission, Farmer organized a two-day colloquium, in September 1982, in which a distinguished group of invited academicians and criminal justice professionals discussed the maturing professionalism of public safety careers and the elements of curricula that would best serve it. The result was a revised curriculum which the University approved and put into effect in the fall of 1983. It was designed to provide "a more appropriate group of core courses, more widely grounded and broader in intellectual and academic character." The concept was that "students should have ... knowledge of the field, reasoning and critical thinking, grounded philosophy, communication capability, and professional skills." (Hague, 1983)

## EDUCATING FOR THE WELL-ROUNDED PROFESSIONAL

In this and other ways Farmer pursued a goal of bringing the department to a "period of maturity," accomplishing an expanded mission of educating capable thinkers rather than just technicians. "Rather, criminal justice should be the focus of a number of approaches and methodologies . . . . an interdisciplinary study, and technical considerations should be but one part" (Farmer, 1990).

The revised curriculum was not the only element in the march toward a maturing academic program. To make possible an increased emphasis upon scholarship the teaching loads for faculty members were reduced. Each year a graduate assistant was enlisted to help faculty in various ways. To encourage public service and wide ranging research projects there was created in 1984 the Institute for Criminal Justice and Public Safety Research. Under this rubric research grants were sought and research projects carried out by any of the various faculty members. The projects were not limited to the Virginia scene, but addressed criminal justice issues such as methods of handling high-risk juvenile offenders in a variety of states; comparisons between states in non-jail juvenile detention alternatives; and methods for educators in fostering resistance to drug use among students.

Inevitably the widening interests and capability of the department had to be recognized by a change of name. In 1988, after considerable discussion within the faculty group, a new name was proposed to the Board of Visitors. In that July the Board approved the new department title, Justice and Risk Administration. The research arm was similarly renamed, becoming the Institute for Research in Justice and Risk Administration.

An outstanding indicator of the resolve to promote broad educational approaches was the development for the State Police of an intensive management training institute, supplying 15 credit hours, for "promising administrators." Starting in 1984, this became an annual offering to which the State Police administration sent about 20 of its "on the way up" managers for a curriculum intended to broaden their understanding of their jobs, to sharpen their skills at public administration, and to give them a mind-stretching perspective of their responsibilities. The Corrections Department soon joined this plan, supporting a similar though briefer annual "Promising Administrators Corps" institute.

Robert L. Suthard, currently Secretary of Public Safety and formerly Superintendent of State Police, is proud that the latter organization was only the second police force in the country to achieve national accreditation. He points out that the considerable task of research and agency self-assessment in preparation for the accreditation approval was accomplished with substantial help from the VCU promising administrators course. The officer students did the work as part of their assigned field work projects. But the effect has been more comprehensive than that. Suthard comments that "VCU will always be remembered by me as

providing to the Virginia State Police the first college-level, on-site program which has sparked the initiative of dozens of state police officers to continue their education and eventually obtain their degrees." And with an eye to the vast corrections system now among his responsibilities, he adds that it is equally appropriate for this kind of opportunity to extend to any of the criminal justice components.

## MATURITY BRINGS DIVERSITY AND VITALITY

As a logical extension of the graduate studies, a doctoral program was created in cooperation with other departments in the School of Community and Public Affairs, providing a Doctorate in Public Administration. Also, a variety of extracurricular elements appeared, enriching the student experience. For students with an interest in the risk control subjects there was a VCU section of the American Society of Safety Engineers. It has annually sponsored a $500 scholarship for a student preparing as a safety professional. Also, as an appreciated public service project, it conducted for several years the annual New-Year's "222-MUCH" program. To prevent temporarily impaired party-goers from attempting to drive, student volunteers would stand by at the 222-MUCH telephone number, ready to come meet the person at a bar or party and drive him home.

For criminal justice students, the school participated in the annual awards program of the National Criminal Justice Honor Society, and maintained an active chapter of its Lambda Alpha Epsilon organization. (When the chapter had been formally installed in 1968 the official who came from the national organization to conduct the ceremony was James Hooker, who ten years later joined the department's faculty and lately has been designated assistant chairman.) Among the LAE community service projects was a well publicized day each semester when parents were encouraged to bring their small children for fingerprinting as a measure for identification in case of abduction or other criminal actions.

Campus policing was a later LAE project developed under the title COPS (Corps of Prevention Specialists). Again, student volunteers were involved, being given training at the VCU Police Academy, not to qualify as police but to supplement police in patrolling the campus during evening hours to help ensure its safety for student life generally.

## CONCLUSION

The numbers seem to suggest that the emphasis upon broad educational development, upon research, upon public service, has been well accepted by the interested agencies and by ambitious students. By 1990 this department saw 98 of its students receive baccalaureate degrees while 21 others graduated with a master's degree. A VCU professor of education, commenting on the proper approach for this University in general, could well have been characterizing this department's style and mission. After noting Pasteur's comment that "Chance favors the prepared mind" the professor went on to say, "So an event or a dream or a burst of intuition doesn't work unless the knowledge is there. That's the trick of the university - to prepare the mind" (Mercer, 1989).

It was only what the Department of Justice and Risk Administration was committed to doing - and with increasing success. And these efforts should also have pleased another Virginia educator, Thomas Jefferson, who observed two centuries ago that "Laws will be wisely formed and honestly administered in proportion as those who administer them are wise and honest; whence it becomes expedient . . . that those persons . . . should be rendered by liberal education worthy to receive and able to guard the sacred deposit of the rights and liberties of their fellow citizens" (Jefferson, 1779).

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# *A STUDY OF THE ROLE OF THE STUDENT-TEACHER RELATIONSHIP WITHIN CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION*

*by*
**Daniel W. Lawrence**

## INTRODUCTION

American correctional history has been a convoluted, contradictory, and confusing series of efforts to rehabilitate, punish, isolate, and incapacitate offenders. These efforts have taken the form of severe corporal and psychological punishment, occasionally overly generous and indulgent "treatment" and mixtures of everything in between; frequently existing side by side with one another. The one constant over the past 200 years of correctional history has been some form of incapacitation of offenders, usually by means of incarceration (American Correctional Association, 1983; Clare & Kramer, 1976; Allen & Simonsen, 1975; Mitford, 1973). Many correctional programs have been fads which were short lived (Ayers, 1981). Some have been in existence for some time and have established themselves as substantive rehabilitative efforts with a recognized body of documentation supporting them. Correctional education is generally considered to be one of the substantive and established programs in corrections (Ryan & Woodward, 1987).

Early on in the history of American corrections, it was believed that young adult offenders were more amenable to correction, or as it was later termed, rehabilitation, than were older criminals. Older offenders were believed to be more set in their ways, and the path to their salvation was for them to become "penitent" for their crimes, hence the name penitentiary came to be applied to their place of incarceration. To achieve this end, older offenders were expected to spend most of their time in isolation reflecting on their crimes (Corrections Compendium, 1985; American Correctional Association, 1983; Mitford, 1973).

As early as 1876, the need for prison education for adults was recognized, at least for the younger adult offenders, and the first true prison education program in the United States was inaugurated at the Elmira Reformatory in New York by Zebulon Brockway (American Correctional Association, 1983; Linden & Perry, 1982; Allen & Simonsen, 1975; Lurie, 1965). Correctional education similarly began to emerge in 1914 in Canada with the recognition that the state's obligation to the prisoner does not end with punishment (Roberts, 1973). Prison education was the beginning of what Boshier (1983) referred to as society's need to provide fairness in a just society.

After World War II the impetus for correctional educational programs for adults grew even more rapidly. Correctional education came to be accepted as one of the cornerstones of the rehabilitative effort. Educational programs were instituted in state and federal correctional facilities in all of the United States. Adult offenders were given the opportunity to further their education as a means of staying out of prison in the future (Ryan & Woodard, 1987; Corrections Compendium, 1985; Linden & Perry, 1982; Clare & Kramer, 1976; Roberts, 1973; Menninger, 1968).

Today inmates enroll in correctional education programs for various reasons: they wish to reduce boredom; they seek knowledge; they believe that their loved ones want or expect them to; they believe participation in an educational program will earn them additional time credits toward an earlier release or help them obtain a lower security classification; they seek temporary relief from their immediate prison surroundings; they are responding to gang or peer group expectations; they are able to escape summer heat because the classroom is air conditioned and their housing unit is not; they believe that education will assist them in not returning to prison once released; or as one inmate put it, because he did not want to die in prison and obtaining an education was his best hope of avoiding that fate (Parsons, 1990; Kiser, 1987;

Meussling, 1984; Corcoran, 1984; Hruska, 1981; Ayers, 1981; and Whetstone, 1981).

Boshier (1983) believed, as a result of his research, that inmates may want to learn for the same reason as do many non-inmates, for the sake of learning. While many inmates may be in the classroom for what some might consider to be the wrong reasons, nevertheless, they are there (Roberts, 1973).

## BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Inmates have long been considered by some to be academically retarded when compared to their "free world" peers (Herrick, 1988; Belzer, 1988; Fox, 1987; Longacre, 1981; Dell 'Apa, 1973). Tests administered to inmates in academic programs at various correctional settings within the United States indicate that the inmates tested were educationally well behind their age cohorts (Herrick, 1988; Lawrence, 1988; Reagen & Stoughton, 1976; Roberts, 1973; Nevels, Bontrager, Franz & Lawrence, 1967).

It has been demonstrated on a national level, however, that inmates enrolled in correctional educational programs make significant progress in learning (Welch, 1988; Ryan & Woodard, 1987; Dilulio, 1987). These findings were also borne out by the experiences of the inmates tested by the investigator on a local level at a facility operated by the Oklahoma Department of Corrections (ODOC) (Lawrence, 1988).

There has been an ongoing national debate as to whether or not correctional education in fact reduces recidivism (returning to prison after once having been released). The opinions vary widely and the evidence either way is inconclusive (Linden & Perry, 1982). Ryan and Woodard (1987) argue there is no conclusive evidence linking correctional educational programs to recidivism or post-release adjustment. This view was likewise held by Samenow (1984) and Fogel (1976).

A recent study by Hodgkinson (1989) indicated that the eleven states with the lowest high school drop-out rate also were among the states with the lowest incarceration rates per 100,000 population, Minnesota having had the lowest drop-out rate. The state with the highest drop-out rate, Florida, also had the highest incarceration rate per 100,000 population.

Several studies have been conducted with regard to the participation of inmates in correctional educational programs and recidivism rates. Langenbach, North, Aagaard and Chown (1990) found that inmates participating in the Televised Instructional System (TIS) within the ODOC showed a significant positive relationship between participation in TIS and recidivism. Projected re-incarceration rates were lower for the TIS group than for the non-participants.

A study by Duguid (1981) compared a total of 74 former non-students in a university program at a Canadian institution. The student group reported a 15 percent recidivism rate while the non-student group reported a 48 percent recidivism rate.

Similarly, a study conducted by Reagen and Stoughton (1965) found that of 500 parolees selected at random only 15.8 percent of those who received institutional education returned for parole violations. However, 36.6 percent of those who did not participate in the institutional educational program returned as parole violators.

Both the Duguid and the Reagen and Stoughton studies show recidivism rates that were more than double for educational non-participants when compared to the educational participants. Herrick (1988) further reported that a National Association of Children and Adults with Learning Disabilities study found that learning disabled juvenile delinquents who had as little as sixty hours of remediation had significantly lower recidivism rates. As encouraging as they were, none of the mentioned studies could determine a causal relationship between recidivism and education.

It should further be noted, with reference to the Reagen and Stoughton study, that parole violations are not the only criteria by which recidivism is measured. Those convicted of new crimes while on parole may or may not be considered parole violators, depending on the definition of a parole violator used by the reporting agency. In addition, those offenders returned to prison after discharge from parole would not be covered by a study such as Reagen and Stoughton's.

Recidivism as the sole determinant of the success of a correctional or correctional educational program is flawed. Clare and Kramer (1976) pointed out that recidivism rates traditionally do not take into

account other important social factors such as jobs, family, personal stability, seriousness of subsequent crimes, and non-correctional education. Langenbach, North, Aagaard, and Chown (1990), for example, comment on the difficulty of controlling such variables as education and employment in their study. Any of these factors might have played a critical role with regard to an individual's ability to avoid prison again after once having been released.

Linden and Perry (1982) surveyed numerous studies on prison educational programs and likewise concluded that the research data was inconclusive, mostly due to poor design, with regard to prison educational participation and recidivism. They did conclude, however, that the prison setting was a good place for an educational program. Ayers (1981) believed that the acculturation process experienced by inmate students might have been more important than was the education they receive.

## PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

It was the investigator's belief that the relationship between the teacher and the student in the correctional educational setting was in large part what enabled the correctional student to achieve academically. Ferguson (1980) stated that relationships were the crucible of the formative process. As such, she believed that relationships are bound to alter a sense of wider connection with others providing they, viz. the inmates, were willing to risk.

Much has been written and spoken regarding the power of human relationships. However, it appeared that this subject had received little systematic study. The present study was intended to fill in some of the lacunae in one area of that subject, i.e., student-teacher relationships in a correctional educational setting.

A partnership of some type seemed to exist between the teacher and the student in correctional educational settings. There appeared to be, however, some difference of degree between education in the traditional classroom and that which occurred in the correctional educational setting. Welch (1988) and Roberts (1973) suggested that correctional education was more of a socialization process than one of imparting skills and knowledge, vis-a-vis, the traditional classroom.

Inmate attitudes toward life in general were frequently characterized as: hostile, angry, suspicious, frustrated, discouraged, cynical, manipulative, and the like (Kiser, 1987; Samenow, 1984; Corocoran, 1984; Hruska, 1981; Whetstone, 1981; Goffman, 1961). As a result of the realities of prison life, prisoners often suffered from what might well have been described as ennui. Even though examples of such behavior existed in traditional classrooms, it was unlikely that those attitudes existed to the degree or depth in the public school classroom that they did in the prison classroom setting.

## METHODOLOGY

A naturalistic design with qualitative methods was chosen by the investigator because such an approach seemed better suited to tease out answers to the question stated by the research problem i.e., what was the nature of the student-teacher relationship in correctional education. The investigator agreed with Rockhill (1982) that to use a quantitative and necessarily reductive approach in such a study would be to risk losing substantive material which was critical to the understanding of the nature of the relationship.

A number of terms, sometimes used interchangeably, were utilized to describe qualitative investigation. Lincoln and Guba (1985) described the result of a case study or naturalistic inquiry as a "thick description." That type of study was also called "holistic," "lifelike," "grounded," "inductive," and "exploratory" (Merriam, 1988).

Such descriptors as heuristic were applied to case studies to indicate that they could bring about new meaning, extend the reader's experience, or confirm what may already have been known (Merriam, 1988). Merriam further pointed out that case studies were characterized by discovery of new relationships and concepts, rather than by verification of predetermined hypotheses as were most rationalistic, quantitative studies.

Distortion and/or intrusion by the investigator had long been a criticism of qualitative or ethnographic inquiry on the part of quantitative researchers (Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, and Sechrest, 1971). Brookfield (1984) commented that there was the danger of the investigator becoming so immersed in the data that it was difficult to develop an overall perspective with regard to the main features of that data. Rockhill (1982) pointed out that closeness of the investigator to the subject was not invalid and was in fact integral to such studies. It appeared, however, that both

qualitative and quantitative research methods were susceptible to manipulation and omissions or commissions (Merriam, 1988; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Bogdan and Biklin, 1982; Goetz and LeCompte, 1981).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) stated that the interaction between the observed and the observer in quantitative research had been there all along anyway. They further commented that meaningful human research was impossible without the understanding and cooperation of the subjects, answering another criticism of qualitative inquiry.

With the old distinctions between quantitative and qualitative research less clear, was there still a difference between the two? The answer was that there remained a difference and the advantages of the two techniques needed to be explored to assure that the appropriate method had been chosen for the correct reasons.

The following descriptors from Bogdan and Biklin (1982) offered the best insight into why the investigator chose the qualitative, rather than the quantitative, research model. Qualitative research was characterized as being empathetic, dependent on trust, intense, ongoing, inductive, and with a constant comparative analysis.

Quantitative research, on the other hand, was characterized as being reductionist, detached, distant, deductive, statistical, and with analysis occurring at the conclusion of the data collection. In the opinion of the investigator, the qualitative model better suited the nature of the study.

## POPULATION OF THE STUDY

The population studied consisted of a ten percent sample of all of the students enrolled in the Lexington Assessment and Reception Center (LARC) academic educational program. There were 89 male students enrolled at the time the sample was taken. That number was rounded off to 90 to render the sample manageable. Each student was assigned a sequential number based on their position on the academic records of the LARC educational program. A table of random numbers was utilized to select the nine inmate student subjects (Minium, 1978).

All five teachers employed in the LARC educational program at the time (one teacher subsequently resigned) were included in the study. The school principal was also included as a subject as he frequently substituted as a teacher and had been at the facility for a number of years. The principal was also the designated test administrator for the Oklahoma Department of Education sanctioned General Equivalency Diploma (GED) test, and as such had considerable interaction with most of the students enrolled in the educational program. The study, then, had a total population of fifteen.

## DATA COLLECTION

A one-on-one interview technique was utilized by the investigator to collect the data. An informal conversational approach was used to introduce the critical questions during the student interviews. The student-subject was not told the exact focus of the study, only that the investigator wanted to hear the student's opinions of and reactions to the educational program at the LARC and at any other correctional facility where the subject might have been enrolled as a student.

The investigator relied on field notes taken at the time of the interview and on his memory to later transcribe impressions of the process of the interview and the subject. Throughout the interview process, the student-subjects were casually guided toward the principal topic of the inquiry, i.e., the subject's relationship with his teachers during and prior to incarceration. Open-ended "icebreaker" questions were introduced by the investigator to maintain the flow or process of the interview.

Interviews were conducted in a "neutral" room away from the academic setting and the rest of the inmate population. Inmates were innately suspicious and were frequently constrained to speak freely in a group setting or within earshot of their peers. Expectations and limitations, with regard to an inmate's ability to speak freely to anyone perceived as a staff member, were frequently placed on inmates by other inmates and occasionally by staff members. Even casual conversation with a staff member under certain circumstances could be a source of conflict for an inmate and could have restricted his ability to interact genuinely. It was extremely important for the health and well-being of any inmate that they not be placed in a compromising position, regardless of the type of interaction one was contemplating.

Use of a tape recorder to document the interviews was ruled out for the same reasons. Inmates rarely

encountered a tape recorder except when they were the subject of an investigation or were before an institutional discipline court. Both of these negative associations obviated the tape recorder as a viable tool for an inquiry such as this one.

Additional background material on the inmate-subjects was gathered from the ODOC "Consolidated Record Card". This card contained such information as age, crime, prior incarcerations, race, time-left-to-service, ODOC discipline history, consecutive or concurrent cases, and physical characteristics.

The teacher-subjects were informed of the focus of the inquiry. This approach was taken to better enable the teachers to reflect on their teaching experiences within the correctional setting. It was anticipated by the investigator that the teachers would then be able to sort out what was germane from what was not, with regard to the student-teacher relationships that they had experienced. The same questions were utilized for both the students and the teachers.

## THE SETTING

All of the inmates selected were, at the time of the study, assigned to the medium security "yard" at the LARC. LARC was the largest institution by population of any of the 23 ODOC housing facilities within the state correctional system. LARC housed on the average 1150 inmates daily in three separate administrative housing divisions within the facility.

The medium security inmates lived within the main security perimeter of the institution in one of four yard housing units. Inmates lived, ate, worked, studied, recreated, and visited their loved ones within the confines of the 15 acres comprising the yard. The rated population of the yard was 640 inmates and beds were rarely vacant. Combined with the staff assigned to work the yard, the population density of the yard was approximately 47 persons per acre. The 1986 United States Bureau of the Census (1988) figures showed that the population of the yard at LARC exceeded the most densely populated city in the United States (New York) by 6,000 persons per square mile—30,000 to 24,000.

On June 1, 1989, the racial breakdown of the inmate population of the ODOC was 58 percent white, 33 percent black, and nine percent other (ODOC, 1989). That breakdown has been fairly consistent over the past few years and was indicative of the inmate population racial breakdown at LARC as well.

## CONCLUSIONS

Seven of the surveyed inmates were high school dropouts when incarcerated and two inmates had received their secondary diploma prior to their incarceration. There were six white males (two-thirds of the sample) and three black males (one-third) among the participants studied.

Both Mauer (1990) and Welch (1988) reported the disproportionate numbers of minorities, predominantly black, within the American prison system. Since the racial composition of the sample was consistent with the overall racial composition of the ODOC (ODOC, 1989), the LARC sample seemed representative.

Three of the inmate-subjects reported having been involved in an *educational program at* another ODOC facility prior to their arrival at LARC. The remainder of the subjects had never been enrolled in an ODOC educational program prior to becoming involved in the LARC educational program. Two inmates had earned their GED's since entering prison.

Eight of the nine inmate-subjects reported having had or having at the time of the study what they considered to be a significant relationship with a teacher at LARC or at another ODOC facility. Only one inmate-subject reported never having had a close relationship with any teacher at any time, either in or out of prison. Of the eight subjects who reported a close relationship with a teacher, one was with a teacher who was employed at another ODOC facility and another was with a LARC teacher who retired approximately one and one half years prior to the study. The remainder of the relationships (six) occurred at LARC and were current at the time of the study.

The investigator believes the data strongly suggested that inmates who enrolled and stayed in a correctional educational program did tend to form a close, significant (for the inmate) relationship with a teacher during the course of their educational program. Frequently, the relationship was with the first teacher to whom the inmate was assigned and seemed not to have been duplicated if the inmate was assigned another teacher for whatever reason. That may be what one teacher feared, as she decided to leave LARC for another position, when she suggested that her students "may not give another teacher a chance." The

study suggested that students either did not again place such trust in another teacher or only did so reluctantly. No inmate-subject studied at LARC had yet placed such trust in a subsequent teacher.

Based on the interviews conducted with the student-subjects, the investigator characterized six of the students as highly motivated, two moderately motivated, and one unmotivated with regard to their educational programs. The latter was dropped by his teacher from the educational program shortly after his interview due to non-attendance and his apparent lack of interest in the educational program.

It was the unmotivated student's lack of academic interest that in someways confirmed the importance of the student-teacher relationship for the other eight subjects. Since he had "nothing to hang on to" he simply faded out of the program. The other students had a relationship to hang on to, or did have such a relationship at one time.

Two subjects reported that they would have left the LARC educational program had it not been for the relationship they had with their teachers. Both subjects also said that they had considered changing from the educational program to one of the vo-tech programs but that they had not yet done so, mostly because of their teachers.

The existence of a former student-teacher relationship seemed to have encouraged two of the students to progress from the GED to the TIS program. Both claimed to have had a positive relationship with their TIS coordinator, but both also believed they were for the most part self-motivated with regard to their current educational program. Their coordinator had, however, helped both students secure funding for their classes.

The higher education student's experience may be illustrative of Boshier's (1983) and Whetstone's (1981) observation regarding a crucial threshold occurring around the end of the second year of prison university studies. At that juncture, Boshier and Whetstone reported, the student's self-confidence and self-image seemed to have taken a positive leap. Learning and attitudes engendered by the learning experience were internalized or incorporated by the student. It appeared that at this juncture the presence of a significant student-teacher relationship might have been, at least partially, supplanted by the student's own motivation.

Linden and Perry (1982) and Ayers (1981) confirmed Boshier's and Whetstone's observations. Langenbach and Korhonen (1988) suggested a similar process when they spoke of the complex and personal reasons that persisters had for continuing their education. The majority of inmates, such as the one who was dropped for lack of interest, might have confirmed Langenbach and Korhonen's posit of the non-persister's "bluster syndrome," referring to those students who consistently overrated their abilities. Inmate personality characteristics, as reported by Lilly, Cullen, and Ball (1989) and Samenow (1984), were consistent with Langenbach and Korhonen's observations for non-persisters.

An unexpected outgrowth of the study was one student's reference to a sort of "campus camaraderie" among some of the students in the TIS program. Bosher (1983) and Whetstone (1981) spoke of a similar atmosphere at the university program they were involved with at a Canadian institution.

One of the most unexpected and gratifying aspects of the study for the investigator was the obvious esteem in which most of the students held their teachers. It was reasonable, based on the data, to believe that at least four of the inmate-students actively viewed their teachers as role models. Another two certainly spoke of their former, significant student-teacher relationship in terms that were consistent with role-modeling as well.

One of the questions which interested the investigator at the outset of the study was whether or not the student-subject data would coincide with that reported by the teacher-subjects. It seemed to the investigator that the perceptions of both the students and the teachers, with regard to the important qualities of the student-teacher relationship, did correspond.

The agreement of perception between teachers and students in the LARC educational program was in contrast to what Darkenwald and Gavin (1987) reported. Darkenwald and Gavin commented on several studies which found substantial differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of both the ideal and actual traditional classroom environment.

All of the teacher-subjects reported that they believed the student-teacher relationship had been of critical importance in successfully carrying out their

goals as teachers and ODOC employees. Each of the LARC teachers used different means to accomplish these ends, but it seemed evident to the investigator that the student-teacher relationship was the vehicle. Some teachers focused on forming and strengthening the relationship, while others were more content to let relationships form at the student's pace. The investigator, however, had little doubt that the student-teacher relationship was at the core of the LARC teachers' educational efforts.

The student-teacher relationship appeared anomalous to the traditional order of any correctional institution. Close relationships between staff and inmates were discouraged, if not outright forbidden by policy and convention. That positive relationships existed and even flourished was remarkable. It was confirmation of Boshier's (1983), Ayers's (1981), Duguid's (1981), and Whetstone's (1981) observation regarding the school setting being an oasis within the prison setting.

Welch (1988), Ayers (1981), and Roberts (1973) considered the acculturation process to have been as important as the education which the students received. Boshier (1983) and Whetstone (1981) affirmed that inmates changed as a result of the educational process and called for all inmates to be educated. The LARC education program, according to the facility principal, always had a waiting list of inmates who wished to enroll.

Goffman (1961), in describing the characteristics of "total institutions", also described the realities of prisons. Prisons can rarely rise above their "keeper and kept" atmosphere, he said. The educational program was one of the few experiences and places within any prison where the basic reality of prison life could, even temporarily, be overcome. The classroom became, as Whetstone (1981) described it, a "refuge," a sanctuary from the realities of the prison where the "geniality" between teachers and students could prevail.

The prison educational program, at least at LARC, seemed to be a place where Goffman's "identity kit" might have been regained, even for the moment. Education for the inmate-student, then, might have been the beginning of a return from the "civil death" which Goffman described.

## RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The student-teacher relationship was found to be important to the student's ability to achieve academically. Education is a process and the process seemed to be at least as important as the subject matter. It is recommended that increased emphasis be placed on the recognition and fostering of student-teacher relationships, at least in correctional education if not in education as a whole.

The classroom setting offers an opportunity for relationship development which does not seem to exist elsewhere within correctional institutions. The nature of prisons does not normally allow for the formation of positive relationships between staff and inmates. It is recommended that the unique nature and atmosphere of correctional educational programs be protected as a "safe haven" for the establishment of educationally productive relationships.

Students did not appear to form subsequent relationships with new teachers once the primary student-teacher relationship had been severed. It is recommended that teachers recognize the importance of the student-teacher relationship and attempt to form such relationships wherever possible and appropriate.

Students initially came to the classroom of their own volition. Those studied, however, seemed to stay on because of the relationship formed with their teacher. In some instances, that relationship appeared to be the only element still holding the student in the educational program. It is recommended that the power of the relationship be recognized and utilized to maintain students in the educational program until they are able to function as self-directed students.

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# FUTURE OPPORTUNITIES OF SYMBIOSIS IN RELATING HIGHER EDUCATION TO CORRECTIONAL IN-SERVICE TRAINING

*by*
**P. Christopher Menton**

Higher education cannot hope to fulfill correctional in-service training needs. Post-secondary education can and should address the learning needs of individuals working in corrections. It is important to examine the differences in mission of training vs. higher education, and think about how they can form a symbiatic relationship.

Questions on this topic include: Does college teach what correction workers want to know? What is higher education's place in in-service training of correction staff? Is higher education presented in formats sensitive to different individual's styles of learning? Participants need to identify their learning styles and think about the economy of grouping similar learners together. Basically what you need to do is to learn, to show me, to teach me. So I would expect that you will challenge me with inquiry and agree with this or not. I'm not locked into this philosophy. What I can say is that through flexibility, and attention to developmental theory, maybe we can take a look and include more people in the active learning processes. Focusing on the learning strengths of different folks has brought the curriculum to life in my training classrooms. Adult learning theories may be able to suggest to higher education methods of meeting the learning needs of correctional staff and maybe others too.

First I want to give you an outline of who I am, some of my ideas about correction, training and higher education, and how through working together I think we can be of benefit to each other. Seventeen years ago, I started working for the Department of Correction in Massachusetts. At that time, I was a junior at Curry College, a small liberal arts school just outside of Boston. I was hired by the Department of Correction and immediately went into a staff basic training program. There I first started noticing the differences between college and training. My training served a preparatory function. The practicum program I was in at Curry College served as a supportive function. Both helped my initial survival in the correction system. One thing I will touch on is the difference between higher education and corrections in-service training. Within the first couple of years working in prison, I enrolled in a graduate program and received a Masters in Education at Boston University. How that came about is an example of academic outreach to the field.

Currently I am assigned to Staff Development. We address the training needs of department employees, both initially in the form of basic training programs which is where I am currently assigned, and also in development and delivery of in-service programs which is where I was formerly the coordinator. What do I want to say to a group of people who seek to strengthen the ties between academia and the art of holding humans captive? I want to endorse this effort, knowing it is needed, worthy and difficult. My feeling is that the academic community at times finds corrections somewhat hard to relate to. Corrections simply cannot paint itself as an altruistic entity like mental health or other human service areas. It is a bit ironic, considering that the Department of Correction is a full service provider offering medical and mental health, nutritional services, recreation and a whole range of others. We are basically the alpha and the omega for the inmates. Yet time after time, I find academic inability to relate to be the case. Correction workers are held in low esteem by other professional individuals or groups. As an example, I went to a luncheon meeting of the Massachusetts Association of Prison Educators last year. This is a group whose members instruct college courses to inmates. Again and again I was asked questions about what can be done about the officers -

they are hostile and uncooperative. This perception becomes the self-fulfilling prophecy. We mistake the alien environment of prison to be the creation of the correction worker when, in fact, they share the same fear that anyone would experience there. There is hardly any relating. Could it be on these occasions when academia comes to prison that a lack of tolerance and predisposed impressions on both sides maintains the distance and serves neither? "A failure to communicate." We must combat cliche. How? Change yourself, do not try to change others. By changing oneself, others change in response to that change. That is the support, the human interaction that serves an educator's purpose. Education's job is to reach out and show possible enrollees that educators are supportive of their development. This is the key to demonstrating support of someone's development; accepting them. Not an easy task. This brings us to the paradox of promoting intellectual ethical development and at the same time being non-judgmental. It is a tough job, but it is the mission of good education to facilitate understanding, not to simply promote the accumulation of knowledge. By starting with the student's orientation, we advocate inclusion and get an instant commitment on the student's part. This is methods material which we will touch on later.

The other half of the coin is what people in the correction business ask me, many of whom are in high management positions. "How could I get a graduate degree? I would like to demonstrate the credibility of my professional performance with academic certification." Many of them express regret or a resignment that the opportunity has slipped by them. Many of them would like to have more than their Associate's or Bachelor's degree. Others still in not-such-high positions in the Department of Correction regret they do not have Associate's or Bachelor's degrees. Even with tuition reimbursement programs and the high number of educational institutions in the Massachusetts area, it is my experience that many find it impossible to get any sort of academic recognition or facilitation for their academic aspirations. Over two years ago, I abandoned efforts to apply for an academic program at the state university. I considered the 200-word self-promotional statement to be a challenge to draft, balancing real personal history with admissions committee's expectations. But the requirement that really prompted me to discontinue my efforts was when the application directions instructed me to examine all the courses I had taken over my academic career in a specific discipline, psychology, and calculate a grade point average. Then I had todo it on an undergraduate level for all psychology courses and then on a graduate level for all psychology courses. I lost focus there. I think Page Smith points out in his book, Killing the Spirit, that sometimes academics get a little fixed on scientific quantitative methods and lose sight of the fact that numbers do not tell all. Often we have focused on a particular style of knowledge acquisition somewhat to the exclusion or sacrifice of others. this causes distress and frustration in the learner whose strong suit is not number-crunching or literature searching. Quantification offers some real predictability in results but its specificity sacrifices parts of the big picture. It fails, at times, to lend dignity and respect that belong to the plodders who plod along adding very stabilizing qualities to wherever they are plodding. Many correction personnel care only about some concrete numbers such as inmate population counts or budget allotments. Many corrections workers feel they deal with more concrete issues, and that academics is a much more respectable, intellectually intimidating field and, in fact, an ivory tower - someplace they cannot go to. It is beyond them.

My experience tells me that most correctional workers get into the field with a high school diploma or GED and very little education beyond that. That is the minimum hiring requirement in my state. Many recruits I see labor over academic training requirements while most respond with excitement to hands-on training. The general feeling that I perceive is that their memories of schooling experience are not their fondest ones. The equation that reads "education is fun" does not ring true for many.

*Let's shift gears...*

**EXERCISE #1**

As a starting point, I would like everybody to take a look at these sets of quotes (posted on the walls of the room starting front-left, moving clockwise). I would like you to gravitate to the one that you perceive to be appropriate to be understandable to agree with to identify with, to sympathize with, to disagree with least of all the others, comparatively speaking. The first set, over in this corner:

A. Information - input
"A problem well stated is a problem half solved." Task analysis, needs assessments on positions in corrections will help identify curriculum needs.

B. Organizational Layout - "Plan your work and work your plan." The structure of an academic program can be mutually beneficial to the program and the student.

C Affect - "Not everything that counts can be counted." Outreach, personal contacts, support and word of mouth can mean a successful program.

D. Impact - "Bring action to the abstraction." The potential for sharing resources between these fields is outstanding.

This exercise allows participants to identify their own learning styles.

One current adult learning theory breaks down individual learning propensities into four quadrants. This started as the "right brain, left brain" learning theories. Split brain studies of epileptics by Roger Sperry noted functional differences on the left contrasted to the right after patients with uncontrollable seizures underwent surgical severing of the hemispheres of the brain. This has evolved to whole brain learning theories by Ned Herrmann. Traditional styles of teaching have focused on learning propensities that need facts and testable theories. Curricula and teaching methods at institutions of higher learning seem geared towards these learners. It is characterized by logical fact-based thought. Thinking is planned, sequential and detail-oriented. This is the left brain learner.

I recently attended a training presented by the U.S. Office of Personnel Management. The program was billed as accelerated learning. Through posters with simple quotes tacked up on the wall like these you see today, the trainers did what we have done. These groups were subdivided into manageable sizes. They proceeded to have fun and , for me, drove home the point that teachers need learners to teach, yet learners will learn regardless. For education to have meaning for anyone who wants it, teaching styles must address the differences in processing information we all have, for we need everyone's assistance in evolving education at a pace that comes close to the demand.

Although the bulk of correctional administrators who have attended the National Institute of Corrections have been tested out as traditional left brain learners, they make up a small percentage of Department staff. I believe that, just as in schools and other social systems, correctional administration is caught up with quick yield and highly structured short-term planning. This per se is not a negative thing, except when it comes to such dominance as to preclude other styles of learning. In his book A Force For Change, Harvard Business School Professor John Kotter puts forth the proposition that our social organizations are headed by good managers with weak leadership skills.

The long-term correction personnel who have started their careers in the security end of the business, generally are half right brain learners. These people are risk takers, action oriented. Learning for these folks must be flexibly structured and highly interpersonal. With sensitivity towards the fact that different people learn in different ways, I have employed a philosophy of being "student focused" in my trainings and teaching.

The connection between higher education and the training of correctional staff is not a smooth one and can prove difficult. This also applies to other law enforcement careers. Non-traditional learning styles of much of the correction staff are not the staple of the academic community. Higher education may seem unable to translate abstract theories and studies into meaningful practical contributions to the field. The inability to relate with higher education personnel can engender feelings of a lesser status by the correction worker. He/she fears the academician as mentally superior, and then rationalizes that the professors are out of touch with reality. This confusion does not promote positive self-image in the worker, nor does it breed much mutual respect.

As we continue to look at correctional careers, it is useful and insightful to note that correctional staff positions are often obtained by default. No one planned an applying for them. Positions were and still are often used as stepping stones to more desirable and prestigious positions in law enforcement. This is not considered to be a respectable job. These positions have been referred to a being at the bottom rung of the criminal justice career ladder, the lowest positions in the field.

The correctional staff who have advanced degrees have had difficulty assimilating. I have seen

the new staff person talking about his college experience while the faces of his co-workers responded with bored and barely tolerant looks. The worker fresh from the academic community can become distressed by the disparity between theories and the actual practice of corrections. They can, by design or default, undermine and threaten the authority of their supervisors who can, in turn, retain feelings of suspicion, distrust and envy. Correctional staff are not encouraged to pursue higher education. The unwritten yet clear message is to not pursue higher education, for its rewards are dubious. This coupled with the demands to utilize learning styles that have previously proven unsuccessful is a big deterrent. Correction staff with advanced academic certification, who do receive promotions, may be viewed as less credible, for generally they will have had more organizational and administrative responsibilities than line or shift responsibilities.

<u>In-service training in corrections is different from education</u>: Training addresses practical considerations. Clipped, succinct and to the point are the requirements. The program must have 1) time constraints, 2) performance focus, and 3) fiscal practicality and financial practicality. Training is motivated by issues of pragmatic consequence and good faith efforts to equip staff to do the job. This translates into: addressing employee turnover, covering known liabilities such as through caselaw sources, statutes and nationally recognized standards and finally, it is also good public relations. Certainly training is acknowledged as important but where, in the use of scarce resources, does it sit? Departments have both demands and restraints placed upon them. Conditions of overcrowding, inmate health care, the day-to-day issues of court trips and other needs and coverage, many times, can override the scheduled training. By necessity it is performance focused. Personal enrichment programs - "touchy-feely" - approaches, have been tried, and are very well attended, but they are really not the domain of in-service correctional training programs. But this response does identify a need. Here is a list of programs offered two years ago that were heavily attended. (Attachment #1)

These more abstract values and concepts, these enrichment resources could be the door through which higher education can start to address correction staff learning needs, for the current place of post-secondary education is with attracting the individual. Institutional and departmental training and personnel structures may be the access route, but the individual must be sold on the program's relevance and its logistical and methodological alignment with his/her schedule and abilities. This is a consumer demand. If a college is sensitive, these issues will start identifying themselves.

Higher education--where is its place? Although it is a standard refrain, the answer is so plain that it is invisible. I hesitate to say this because it has been used recently as a reason to absolve society and its institutions of the obligation to facilitate. Responsibility lies with the individual learner, for at this time it is beyond the grasp of the training departments and correctional institutions. The two major reasons for these conclusions on my part, are the different sides of the same coin. One person is that many staff, both recruits as well as those on the job, sometimes really need basic skills training and are not equipped to go to college. Secondly education is generally a linear approach contributed to this skill deficit in the first place. If this population could succeed in standard academic antics, not to mention the bureaucratic acrobatics, they most likely would not be working in this field in the first place. This disinheritance by education, of learning styles, does not promote a positive self-image that these risk-takers need in order to do society's dirty work.

The public perception of the prison guard is that of a base, corrupt, unfeeling "lardass" who promotes disorder among the prison population. How many of us buy into this simplistic explanation for a complex group? This rejection can be mutual, for I have seen very little interest on the part of the correction officer unions to promote training or education although there is a tuition reimbursement section in the contract. Generally, the union's concern is with the higher education of its members' children with scholarships and the like, so that the children do not end up doing what mom or dad do.

Symbiosis is a close association of two dissimilar entities for the benefit of both. Lewis Thomas is a research pathologist whom Tom Wolf called one of the best philosophers of our time. Many of his essays focus on dichotomies and the acknowledgement that it is through broad-based perspectives, not provincial specialization, that we move closer to actually working with each other. For now <u>Them</u> is the

refrain of the blameless; those helpless to anything. I always heard; "They did it - why can't those correction officers behave?" The inmates say it is that judge, those cops. So we have corrections officers, higher education and inmates; have I named a blameless group yet? Page smith, in his book, reviews the historical development of higher education and does not find it blameless - the old law school joke, of sharpening our focus by narrowing our vision is a danger we face without expanding our methodology.

Thomas gives us great hope when he predicts that future disciplines, as yet unnamed, will pursue unifying discovery.

If we can inform, empower and equip the jailer, that in turn can be passed on. If we take steps to see the value of non-traditional learners, then we can tap it. The time is upon us for the spirited inclusion of alliances and not alienations.

So how do we get together? Marketing. Schools have a service for sale. For the consumer there is an interest in what quality the product has and consumers are not inclined to purchase products that do not suit the needs. And what are those needs? Certainly the more reflective courses, as well as creative skill-building. Let me give you an example of marketing: I went to Boston University School of Education. I was at the time enrolled in a course in another graduate school with the possibility of admission contingent upon conditions. I saw a notice for a graduate program designed specifically for human service and criminal justice personnel offered by Boston University. It was posted on the personnel bulletin board at the prison. It was probably sent to the personnel office. Being interested, I found somebody who had previously gone to this program and received confirmation that this was a good product. After entering the program I told a friend who, in turn, enrolled in the next cycle of the program. It was an interesting program. I got some real basic tools for human service issues and was certainly satisfied. The program was designed very tightly. Enrollment was for specific, pre-determined courses, a listing of which was part of the initial brochure.

The people who enrolled at the same time I did, ended up in the same cycle and a semester later, a new cycle was begun. Because of the high volume and specificity of the program, a lower tuition cost was possible, offering the program at far below retail cost. I recently talked to Dr. Steve Ellenwood, the chairman of the Department that ran the program at Boston University. With some pride, he recalled the fact that many people who wanted advanced certification found an opportunity through this program to get that. Being packaged programs, they were more reasonable in price than a general tuition cost for similar programs and were paid up front. It was sink or swim. This is the type of experience risk-takers like.

This program was a co-production of the Massachusetts Institute for Human Service Programs (MIHSP) and Boston University School of Education, Department of Social Education with courses pre-selected, coordinated, and marketed by MIHSP. This program was canned. It was designed and delivered in such a way as to utilize on-staff faculty and recruited students directly from occupations such as police officers, correction personnel, probation personnel, and juvenile justice personnel - basically criminal justice/human service program personnel. These people had common interests and professionally identified with each other in many ways. And they all had a desire to get themselves some advanced academic certification.

More recently I interviewed Joseph Boston, an administrator at Cambridge College in Cambridge, Massachusetts. I talked to him on the phone. My interest in the program and the school was sparked by the fact that approximately 50 percent of the people who I knew were attending graduate school working in the Department of Correction, were attending Cambridge College. The program that they were attending was a program of counseling and administrative training, culminating in a Master's in Education. I asked Mr. Boston if he had any statistics on the number of people enrolled in his program who worked in corrections. He told me he had no figures on exact fields people came from, but most of them were working in administrative and professional jobs in both the private and public sectors. I asked him about the three things I am concerned with as a potential consumer of an academic program including 1) the program content, 2) the program structure, and 3) the program marketing. The program content is similar to what one would expect from classes in other colleges, focussing on skill proficiencies, such as techniques

in counseling and principles thereof, methods of research, management technologies. Along those lines is basically what I expected his program to be offering. When we started talking about the structure of his program, that is where he diverged from the academic norm. His focus was in the utilization of adult learning theories, basing the delivery of the curriculum on the shared experiences of the field professionals who were his students. Thus, the curriculum was very interactive and somewhat student driven. Program delivery rather than content was different, yet I think that if I had investigated further, I would find some major differences in content also.

The third force is marketing and I asked him about that. I have seen some very eye-catching, very aggressive advertisements for his programs listed in the learning pages of the Boston Globe. When I had sent away for his catalog awhile back, I got the catalog, a personal letter, as well as a follow-up phonecall offering to even conduct outreach or briefing sessions to any number of professionals that I could muster. He stated that a big focus of his marketing for enrollment, was this outreach that he and his staff did. I asked him about yields by word of mouth advertising. His conservative estimate was that 40 percent of new enrollees hear from somebody else who had already participated in the program. I believe that this is a widely under-rated issue in an academic program's success - the simple process of getting people to purchase your service. I think that needs to be examined further. I remember one of the first colleges I attened, people were quitting on the first day, deciding not to go through the rigors of registration. Certainly we have taken great strides since that time, but still, it remains an issue.

**EXERCISE #2**

This is where you, as learners, must contribute. I have broken you up into groups, or you've broken yourselves up into groups, basically. You have chosen where to sit with some prompting. If my attempt to apply Ned Herrmann's theory succeeded, then we are grouped in pods of similar learning propensities and as such we may be more proficient in our execution of assignments that require the utilization of our strengths.

I would ask that this group over here, our A Group whom we will identify as Left Hemispheric Brain Learners, have a very research-oriented approach and discover through fact-based inquiry. I ask them to discuss and list what kinds of programming, what kinds of courses, or what kinds of focus an academic program aimed at correction workers should have. Content issues. See if you can address content issues for a future academic program.

According to Mr. Herrmann's theory, he would say the B Group, if my test is valid, consists of Left Emphatic System Learners with good organizational skills. And so I should ask these people who may have a knack for organization and organizational skills to identify factors that they have discovered or factors that they know about the needs of students and the needs of academic programs and see if we can work out some sort of schedule or context type of statement or list. And we will just take a look at that in a few minutes.

Now our C Group over here, we will give you the glamorous aspects. We'll make you Madison Avenue. You tell us how we can sell these programs. How we can get the content, and the context out into the field and sought after, popularized, pursued and purchased.

And this last group, our D Group, are people who are Right Hemispheric Dominant learners, assume the role of consumer, the persons who need the college degree, who need a Masters degree, who need a PhD for their own personal or professional reasons. For their career development. For one reason or another, they want to get more academics. Tell us what your needs are. Tell us content, context, and access. See if you can tie it all together in a more general statement. We're looking for specifics here and general there. Is it fair? I digress.

A-Group participants identified their Communication Criminology Counseling/ Interview skills.

B-Group proposed program structures that included convenience for student including both time and location. Collaborative efforts with correction administration and union as far as defraying cost, monetary incentive, and career development opportunities.

C-Group got sidetracked once they started talking to each other. Highly interpersonal response is not a surprise from this group, so other sections of this paper explored this issue of marketing.

D-Group response included those mentioned by groups A and B: ethics, promotion, affordability,

and convenience. They expanded to include relevance, respect, and structure so that most work was done in class.

## CONTENT, DESIGN AND MARKETING OF PROGRAMS

As far as content is concerned, go look at the needs these workers have. Let's develop and utilize skill-building curriculum so as to broaden our customer-base. Holistic issues may be another, as well as more standard academic subject matter.

The marketing is where some of your most important responsibilities, as educators, lie as far as at least getting people to come in the door. You have to advertise, you have to sell a product and you have to have a strategy on how to sell that product. We will talk a bit more about designing a product in a minute. You want to develop a marketing strategy for your academic programs. You have a product to deliver, you have a responsibility to educate and if you want to educate people who work in corrections, you need to reach out to them. That's how I and others discovered programs. Once outreach is used, and if you have addressed the other issues, of form and content, then the program will start to grow legs of its own. Advertising serves just to enhance that, to keep bolstering your sales or your enrollment. I think, initially, you need to reach out to those factions you want. My advice: send your announcements with a personal note off to training instructors at various institutions, to the training department, or to the personnel department. Then follow-up with a personal phone call. This enables you to get an idea of what they are looking for, so that, with some simple adjustments in your program, you can make it much more attractive. Again, this personal contact is important, reaching out and finding out what needs are out there, specifically for the area.

As far as design is concerned, this is where we talk about the whole brain learning issues. The product should be such that the student can identify with the program. The presentation of information must be in forms where all can find it learnable. This involves setting up some principals for how the material will be presented. I attended a conference not so long ago on Juvenile Justice Services programs for helping kids. There was a gentleman who presented a paper on "drop out prevention." What he advocated was that the curriculum should be alive, not stunted, not just reading of books or someone presenting material in a monologue fashion. Under his breath he said "as I am doing now." And I said to myself - why are you doing it if you don't think it is a way that people comprehend? Or, why are you doing it this way if you know it is not the best way to do it? I guess we have to become entertainers as educators. But I think that the acquisition of knowledge should be somewhat educating, fascinating, entertaining - should have music - should have bells and whistles. Students should be involved, they should be included in the design and execution of the curriculum. The educator should be the director of the production with learning as a participatory sport, not a spectator sport.

From a training point of view, I can see that people respond more exuberantly where they do role plays, as well as practice run-throughs of a drill or procedure. They have fun with this and they retain it better.

I am excited thinking that both fields have much to offer each other. Corrections has what my trainees and staff call RL experience - real life experience, real life training. Corrections has access to or accumulations of massive amounts of data on a variety of issues relative to criminal behavior and the management of people who behave in such a way. Also from a more pragmatic point of view, in the age of dwindling government employee payrolls, correction budgets in general are not dwindling. Payroll figures or personnel numbers for correction departments may be shifting, but certainly are not decreasing. So there is a rich resource of people who probably could benefit from some in-depth study on issues of particular importance to this field. We are basically managers of high security communities and a whole range of studies would be germane and relevant for various personnel in the correctional system, depending upon their duties and interests and job responsibilities. I truly and firmly believe that increased trainings and increased education levels of personnel in correctional environments only serve to enhance the quality of treatment that the inmate population receives. It further enables the personnel to come to grips with difficult situations both morally and philosophically, as well as in practical and psychological terms. So for corrections, education has a wide range of resources to be offered. Certainly it is no secret that the bottom line in corrections is the use of naked force in inmate management, and that bottom line has to be reached on occasions. I

think the number of occasions can be impacted by the level of sophistication; by the level of education or moral, ethical exploration done on the part of the personnel. It is something that higher education can provide.

I am somewhat concerned by the public perception of corrections and how that impacts the academic perception of correctional personnel. I think that in the current spirit of inclusion we should be careful not to exclude in our rush to include.

I believe that there are particular groups that exert significant influence on the social development of large segments of our population or at least on pronounced segments of our population. Certainly primary and secondary educators are people in that group. Also correction personnel are included. Fancying myself to be an educator, I have often adopted the view of my role as a correction worker, to be that of a social education agent trying to establish an educational approach to the treatment of incarcerated individuals.

I am again reminded of Lewis Thomas' essays. I find them very comforting, very relaxing, very enjoyable to read. He talks about the concept "symbiosis," starting from a biological, concrete point of view and bringing it up to the abstract level. If we can give any credence to the notion of people possessing different learning propensities, and we certainly know that people are different, then we start thinking in terms of people's value and respect. We can ask people to identify how they function (encourage people to do what they do well and like) and in doing so, bestow upon the person respect and a responsibility to utilize those particular skills. In doing this, we have developed a system where people can be different but work together. Here, the differences are cause for celebration rather than fuel for conflict. I think we might be getting there. And in the going is another idea that attracts me to Thomas. In academics, there is evolution and there is yet unnamed disciplines out there for us to cast ourselves into. If we start applying economic ways of discovering information together, and respecting individual differences, maybe fun can be a dominant as well as productive force in our lives. I advocate reducing our need for standardization and emphasizing the acceleration of discovery. Basically, everybody has got an opinion. Canons vs. political correctness. The German academic model on American higher education. John Kotter and Ed Herrmann see untapped resources because of our locked focus on models that have previously worked, but whose effectiveness can be enhanced by opening up and including more styles and a broader focus. John Kotter talks a lot about leadership vs. management and that today's American work culture is very much focused on the value of management, which is not to be diminished, yet does not fulfill the issue of leadership. He goes on to talk about the concept of leadership as being inclusionary. People participate at different levels of this socioeconomic entity, whether it be a school or a prison or a factory or some other sort of industry. When people understand, and feel included and vital through outreach, that is when things move. Please facilitate the human resource to believe in itself and its efforts.

## ATTACHMENT 1

# HOLISTIC HEALTH PROGRAM: FOR A HAPPIER, HEALTHIER YOU BODY, MIND SPIRIT

At the Department of Correction Training Academy, see your Training Officer for details.

Course Title

Minding the Body, Mending the Mind
Forgiveness: A Shrewd & Practical Strategy
Positive & Loving Relationships
Good Feelings Seminar
The Practice of Conflict Resolution
Creating Trust in Difficult Relationships: Neuro-Linguistic Programming
Treat Yourself to Vitality. . . Through Yoga
Healing Relationships
Toward a New Way of Men Relating to One Another
Shiatsu Massage: An Introductory Workshop
Hindsight is 20/20: If Only I Knew Then What I Know Now
Psychosynthesis: Working With Inner Conflict
Understanding the Difference Between Men & Women
Health Maintenance
Lost in the Shuffle: Co-Dependency
Caring for Your Body, Mind & Spirit
What Your Handwriting Reveals About You
Reducing Self Punishment
Promises and Perils of the Path: Spiritual Emergence
How to be Powerful in Communicating: Conflict Resolution
Walking on Eggshells & Waiting for the Other Shoe to Drop: ACOA or the Experience of Growing up in a Dysfunctional Family
Healing of the Body, Mind & Spirit: Using the Tools of Yoga, Chi-Kung, Reiki & Therapeutic Massage
The Power of Personal Direction
Risking to be Known: Revealing the Essential Self
Building Intimacy in a Relationship
Counter Hypnosis

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